# TRENDS IN EDUCATION

20

The 16-18 Question
The Managerial Role
Mode 3 CSE
Modern Languages
Immigrants and Language
Religious Education
Community Development

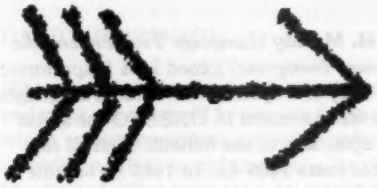
OCTOBER 1970

Department of Education
and Science

HMSO 3s 6d [17½p] NET

Annual Subscription
16s [80p] including postage

# CONTENTS



NUMBER TWENTY OCTOBER 1970

**The 16–18 Question** 3
by David Hopkinson

**The Managerial Role** 10
by Harold Barry and Fred Tye

**Mode 3 CSE** 16
by R. G. Capes

**Language Teaching and the Young Immigrant** 21
by J. H. Mundy

**Modern Languages—a Dialogue** 27
by David Rowlands and H. B. Ellis

**More Paths Than One** 33
by Eric Lord

**Education and Community Development** 39
by J. A. Simpson

**Talking Points** 47

**Trend-Setter** 49

**Books** 51

*The Editorial Advisory Board of* Trends in Education *consists of senior officers of the Department and senior members of the Inspectorate. The Chief Information Officer is general editor, supported by an executive editor (Martyn Clémans) and an associate editor (David Hopkinson, HMI). Correspondence should be addressed to the executive editor.*

TRENDS IN EDUCATION
is produced quarterly by the Department of Education and Science, Curzon Street, London, W.1.

Published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office

Printed in England by C. Tinling & Co. Ltd., Liverpool, London and Prescot.

© *Crown copyright 1970*

# Contributors

**Harold Barry** (*The Managerial Role*) was a headmaster in India for 15 years, and was then for 21 years a member of H.M. Inspectorate, retiring as Divisional Inspector for the North-West. He is now senior research fellow in the University of Manchester where he is concerned with the managerial training of secondary heads.

**R. G. Capes** (*Mode 3 CSE*) has been Secretary of the West Yorkshire and Lindsey Regional Examining Board since 1964. He entered education administration in 1949 after a career in teaching, and he was called to the Bar in 1951.

**H. B. Ellis** (*Modern languages—a Dialogue*) is headmaster of Up Holland Grammar School, Lancashire, and was formerly senior modern languages master at Queen Elizabeth Grammar School, Darlington. He has served on several modern language committees, including the HMA report on modern language teaching and the Schools Council feasibility study of sixth form courses.

**David Hopkinson** (*The 16–18 Question*) joined HM Inspectorate in 1952, and is now Staff Inspector for publications communication and research.

**Eric Lord** (*More Paths Than One*) joined HM Inspectorate in 1960. Previously he was headmaster of Warminster Secondary School, Wiltshire.

**J. H. Mundy** (*Language Teaching and the Young Immigrant*) joined HM Inspectorate in 1949 as a specialist in modern languages. He was seconded to UNESCO for a year in 1960, and to the Schools Council for three years 1966–68. In 1968 he became Staff Inspector for matters relating to international relations, the Commonwealth and immigrants.

**David Rowlands** (*Modern Languages—a Dialogue*) taught modern languages in Belfast before joining the Nuffield Foreign Languages Project in 1964. He worked on early stages of *En Avant* before being appointed organiser of a team producing Nuffield Spanish Course *Adelante*. He became Director of the Schools Council Modern Languages Project in January 1970.

**J. A. Simpson** (*Education and Community Development*) is Staff Inspector for non-vocational further education, with particular responsibility for adult education. He was chairman of the adult education section of the Council of Europe *Extra Scolaire* Committee.

**Fred Tye** (*The Managerial Role*) is headmaster of Wilmslow Grammar School, Cheshire. He is currently seconded to a senior research fellowship at the University of Manchester, where he assists in direction and evaluation of the study-conference described in the article.

*The opinions expressed in* Trends in Education *are the writer's own. They may not necessarily be in accordance with the views of the Department of Education and Science*

*This article discusses various aspects of educational provision for those between the ages of 16 and 18 years.*

# The 16–18 Question

DAVID HOPKINSON

When the school leaving age is raised in the academic year 1972–73 all under the age of 16 will be provided with the benevolent protective care which society regards as appropriate for the young and they will be receiving it full-time and in schools. At 18 the legal age of majority will be attained. There seems to be a twilight period in our educational system between the age at which our children cease to be school pupils by compulsion and the age at which society considers them adult. For many in this age-group there is uncertainty and confusion about their educational future. The purpose of this article is to consider in general outline the various ways in which education is provided between these two points.

## School or Further Education

It is estimated that when the school leaving age is raised there will already be more than 40 per cent of the 16 year olds and nearly 23 per cent of the 17 year olds in the schools. In some areas these figures are now surpassed. Others in this age group will have found themselves places in institutions of further education. There are two ways in which that can be done—by obtaining admission to a full-time course or by entering the service of an employer who grants the privilege of 'release' from work to college either on one day a week or for periods of time varying from 6 months to two or three weeks. In 1968 97,000 of those aged 16 and 17 were full-time students in FE institutions; 229,000 attended as part-time day students. The comparable figure for those in schools was 347,000. Over 600,000 young people of 16 and 17 were outside the institutional system of education as represented by the schools and the major establishments of further education except as evening students.

This is a great improvement on the figures collected ten years earlier and published in the Crowther Report. All the same they reveal a disquieting situation, particularly by contrast with that in the USA, Japan, West Germany, France or Sweden. It was noted in the second report of the Public Schools Commission that 'the most striking feature of the British system, when compared with those of other countries, is the heavy loss of pupils at the minimum leaving age'. To view with complacency the fact that some hundreds of thousands of young people receive no formal education between school-leaving age and their assumption of adult responsibilities is surely unwise. There seems something like a consensus of opinion that all the 15 year olds should be in school. There would be considerable sympathy for the view that an 18 year old adult should exercise the citizen's right to take advantage of what society offers or to give education a miss altogether if he or she so chooses. But in the important area between these two points are we providing what is necessary either for the individual or for society?

The public interest in this question is less strong than might be expected though professional concern is very keen. There is much debate about standards in the sixth forms and entry qualifications to higher education. There are advocates of a somewhat vague new unitary and 'comprehensive' higher education, but neither in the two Black Papers nor in a typical counterblast—the Penguin Special, *Education for Democracy*, for example—is there any mention of the rights to day release, or of the massive drop-out at 16 from any kind of formal education at all? This is not really surprising. The Black Papers were written by professors, headmasters, university teachers and most of the replies are written by professors, headmasters and university teachers. The whole debate suffers from the absence of those who teach the 16–18s in further education establishments where most of them are in fact to be found. In consequence a wholly distorted and unreal picture of tertiary education is presented. There are few contributors to the Black Papers who seem to regard the function of secondary education as anything other than the preparation of a small part of the age group for the universities. There is only one contributor to *Education for Democracy* who shows any concern about how or what to teach in further education and this is naturally the only one among the 27 who actually teaches there. The Public Schools Commission sums up the point astringently: 'An educational system which enables a minority of the most fortunate children to take their education a long way while turning the rest out onto the labour market as soon as it is socially tolerable for them to start work is as obsolete as the early industrial era from which it originated.'

The education of the 16–18 age range is really a single problem to which multiple solutions have to be found. Nobody supposes that the whole age group will be in schools or indeed in educational institutions of any kind, even part-time, unless new legislation is introduced. Available choices will be confined to the existing schools and further education establishments and to any new institutions such as sixth form colleges or liberal arts colleges which may emerge in the 1970s. If these choices are to be made sensibly, reliable and informed guidance must be available to pupils in school. They must be in a position to take up further education whether in school or college, in the form most suited to their home circumstances, their abilities and aptitudes and indeed their whole attitude to life.

## Student or Young Worker

It is clear that a high proportion of those reaching the age of 16 in grammar schools will stay there, for the grammar school (1902 model with subsequent modifications) is an educational institution generally held in esteem by the customer. The 11–18 comprehensive school, a post-war model, has also earned a high regard from the public in many parts of the country. Nevertheless it has not been universally adopted even by those LEAs who submitted plans for secondary re-organisation with some speed and enthusiasm. Middle schools with an age range of 8 or 9 to 13 or 14 are proposed by 65 LEAs; sixth form colleges by a number of others. The 11–16 comprehensive school is an accepted type of provision. There will be leavers at 16, supposedly less able or less orientated towards school work, who may have considerable potential which might develop successfully in a college of art or technology. Few authorities seem to contemplate the restriction of full-time

education for 16 year olds exclusively to the schools and it is apparent that there would be vigorous resistance to any such proposal. Nevertheless an LEA has to be careful with its resources and concerned not to duplicate provision.

Even if one anticipates a rise in the number of 16 year old pupils for whom a two A-level course chosen from 10/12 alternatives or a five O-level course is a reasonable possibility, then institutions offering a programme of this nature will be needed for no more than a quarter of the age group—perhaps for less. These are the minority to whom the term 'student' is commonly restricted. The OND students, those on full-time technician courses, in foundation courses at art schools or taking GCE subjects in further education establishments may be added. It is still a minority. The 16–18 age group consists predominantly of young workers with a sprinkling of child wives and juvenile unemployed. Most 16 year olds want jobs and as things are they seem to get them. They choose to become young workers rather than students. Some educational idealists believe that revolutionary changes in the schools could reverse these decisions, but there remains considerable scepticism about this possibility. Nevertheless it is worth noting that ours is a society that sets a strong guard on entry to a third stage of education for reasons that have nothing to do with education itself but derive from economic necessity and social tradition. The guardians may present themselves as impersonations of Plato's concept but to the young they are more like a two-headed Cerberus. The university dons, the directors and principals of polytechnics and FE colleges challenge those who seek full-time courses: the employers control the entry to part-time education. Training is a process which employers not only provide and control but by some ingenious financial put-and-take under the Industrial Training Act also pay for.

## Classical and Vocational Tradition

These are factors which should be recognised but they do not absolve the educationist from doing all he can to put his own house in order. He might start on this by trying to reconcile, and to unite, the classical and the vocational traditions which dominate provision for the 16–18 age group. The one tradition is founded on two basic principles—that learning, provided it is broad and humane, is the summit of human activity, justified in its own right irrespective of any social dividend it may yield, and that the peak achievements in learning are realised when study in depth is pursued. The last and most eloquent pleading for this aspect of the tradition is to be found in the Crowther report which eulogises the English sixth form. The first aspect of the tradition is preserved in the thinking of the Schools Council's working party on the curriculum even when the second is condemned. Young people are advised in a joint statement by the Schools Council and the Universities Standing Committee to avoid commitments that unduly limit their choice of career or prescribe particular courses of higher education. 'Their curriculum must not take its shape from external pressures exerted in the interest of some narrow view of what they may become.'

So speaks one of Cerberus' heads. The other seems to say exactly the opposite. The voice of the employer and of institutional further education asserts the claim of a different tradition and the 16 year old is not unnaturally confused.

The vocational tradition in fact dominates the third stage of English education for those who have had enough of school. Like the classical tradition it is adapting itself to modern needs and changing conditions in factories and offices. There is a struggle in progress to achieve broader courses, more liberal teaching and new opportunities for social, cultural and physical education. In its purest form, however, it asserts the role of education in the improvement of skills and performance in the interests both of the community and the individual. Learning is to be seen as a means of making progress towards a prescribed goal. It is not a goal in itself but a preparation for the important moment when something has to be made, some action or some decision has to be taken. The content of learning is governed by practical and empirical considerations. It should have occupational relevance, based less on *a priori* assumption than on job analysis. The tradition distrusts academic studies of the curriculum; it attaches greater importance to proper equipment than to the pedagogical preparation of the teacher; it insists on regular and frequent assessment of student competence; it is acutely cost conscious and responsive to market demand. As Crowther pointed out, 'Where (in further education) something does not exist, it is because no effective demand for it has been expressed'. But ten years later the Haslegrave report, while emphasising that the primary aim of further education is vocational, goes on to say, 'The results of the education should, however, be judged not merely on the technical accomplishment of the student, but also on how it has contributed to his general personal development.'

## Strategy and Objectives

For the educationist the goal of his strategic designs must always be the promotion of personal development. He has, of course, to reconcile his views with those of the man-power planner, of industrialists and professional bodies. His strategy must be such that those who control admission to higher education are satisfied. His pupils want jobs or admission to another stage of education, and it is no contribution to their personal development if this is ignored. The factors that count are the inclinations of the young people themselves and the range of possibilities open to them.

The 16 year old in the mid 1970s will have completed his statutory period in school and may well have obtained a leaving certificate in which credit for performance in certain areas of study is given him. All will have been advised and counselled about careers and employment prospects. Those who aspire to particular places within the structure of the national economy will have an outline knowledge of what further education and training will be demanded of them. Others, of whom girls will be the majority, will have no such ambitions. All will be free, in conjunction with their parents, either to enter a contest for further education, to accept it as part of their contract of employment or to give it a miss altogether. We cannot with certainty predict the outcome of these choices in statistical terms, though intelligent guesses have to be made.

In most parts of the country the alternatives open will be various. It is unlikely, and it would certainly be unique in the educational planning of developed countries, that the opportunities offered by the vocational tradition should be reduced. Everything indicates the importance of exploiting the young person's interest in the world of work. His

capacity for learning, as well as his enthusiasm for it, is greater when he becomes conscious of its personal significance. It is not the examination itself, but the door which success in it may open, that supplies a motivation to the student. At the same time we have to recognise that there are limitations to this concept. A narrow and restricted type of education may present superficial attractions both to the individual and its society, but ultimately its unsatisfactory nature will be revealed. Within the individual, centres of interest may well shift during his most formative years. His capacities may develop; meeting with new experience may stimulate new enthusiasm; changes of direction are not uncommon in young people. The broader the foundations of their education, the more adaptable they may become, the more capable of re-orientating their study or their work in response to a change of mood or outlook.

It is also clear that functional roles within society are now subject to rapid change. There is an emphatic demand from the more far-sighted employers for less specialised types of education. While training remains based on job analysis and trained operatives and craftsmen are still necessary, it has been observed that the performance of industry depends increasingly on technicians able to cope with the unexpected situation and equipped to approach new problems with an understanding of the underlying principles involved. Thus the Haslegrave Committee pleads for a broader type of technical education with single courses replacing two or more existing ones and adaptability as an objective.

The Schools Council's and the Universities' Working Parties have advocated delayed specialisation and a broader education for the 16–18 year olds who stay at school with the suggestion that a basic qualification for higher education should be obtainable by passing examinations in five subjects at the age of 17. In the opinion of many teachers the competition for places in higher education already has a deleterious influence on the education of sixth formers. It is not clear that the addition of more examinations would reduce it. Though more subjects might be studied by the brightest pupils the nature of the work in each could become even narrower and more academic if a plan which seems to prescribe qualifying examinations at yearly intervals were adopted. Moreover there is nothing in these suggestions to promote developments that would make staying on in school a more attractive prospect to the 16 year old who does not aspire to higher education. These young people constitute the majority. For them an extended educational programme must have direct relevance to work and life. It is doubtful whether it can be contained within the confines of a single educational institution. Some of it should surely take the form of training within a work situation.

These considerations should guide strategic planning. The colleges of further education which provide for more of the 16–18 year olds than do the schools have their strengths and their weaknesses. They appeal partly because their general atmosphere is often freer, more in accordance with adolescents' tastes and standards. The teaching they offer caters for various levels of ability and sometimes coincides or overlaps with what is taught in schools. Nevertheless much of it is associated with 'real' work outside. Those who grasp the relevance of what they learn in college to what they aim to do in industry or commerce may receive a fresh impetus as a result. In a good college of further educa-

tion, the staff, the equipment and the range of courses offered is more closely related to employment and the working life of an independent man or woman than is the case in schools. All this was pointed out in the Crowther report which emphasised another important fact—that the colleges 'never close the door or refuse a second chance' to anyone who persists with his efforts. Contrasting it with continental systems, Professor Elton, *Trends No. 12*, Oct. 1968, believes that 'with all its failings the British system (of further education) seems to be rather better then the German where decisions, once made, are difficult to reverse.'

The chance of adjusting a course of study to the changing ability and motivation of the student seems to be greater in colleges than in schools. There is not only flexibility in connection with craft and technician courses, but an alternative road to the university and to professional status is provided by the colleges. Some evidence is accumulating to suggest that institutional factors and the teaching methods employed in schools have a deep influence on undergraduate achievement in higher education. This is admirably summarised and discussed in *Success, Failure and Wastage in Higher Education*—G. W. Miller, Harrap 1970. The suggestion emerges that a pre-university type of institution, whether it is created as a separate establishment (sixth-form college) or by developments in the college of further education (liberal arts college) or by altering the nature and reforming the pattern of work of the conventional sixth form in a grammar or comprehensive school, would make a significant contribution to solving some problems faced by universities and polytechnics.

## Research and Experiment

There is clearly much to be done if effective education is to be extended to a higher proportion of the 16–18 age group and if waste of resources is to be reduced. LEAs have to face the issues involved in planning what it may be useful to regard as a tertiary stage of education —something as different from the compulsory general education of the schools as it is from the higher education of the universities, polytechnics and colleges with 'advanced' work. Studies have to be made in order to secure the best utilization of buildings, equipment and teaching skills. Cost effectiveness cannot be neglected.

It has been emphasised that young people are sorely in need of expert counselling and vocational guidance. Only where there is a close relationship between schools and further education establishments is this likely to be effective. In some areas the colleges and the schools have been drawn into partnership. They should never be rivals. There is plenty of evidence that the vast majority of those who stay on at school after 16 are satisfied to be there and a recent study in a provincial city has found that most young students in the colleges had chosen rightly to leave school. The inter-change of students, the pooling of resources, the co-operative planning which characterises the relationship between school and further education in some parts of the country needs to be extended more widely.

More important than the possible waste of material resources is the certain waste of human resources which now occurs. The gravest aspect of this wastage is of course in the further education of girls. Our failure to attract to any form of further education the great majority of

girls in the 16–18 age group is not only unjust to individuals but disastrous for the future of our society. Where boys are concerned the evidence tends to come later and is to be found in the failure rates in City and Guilds, and National Certificate examinations which are still substantial. Dr. Miller in his most recent study of university student wastage suggests that by encouraging more independent work in schools, and employing less authoritarian, directive methods students would be better prepared for higher education and wastage reduced. The design of school work and schools' organisation must clearly take account of the influence it will exert on the pupils' propensity for the various types of further education to which they will proceed.

These are urgent and disturbing questions. Experiments in co-operation between schools and colleges, reforms and new developments in the organisation of sixth form work, impending changes in further education courses are all to be welcomed. From these experiments and from research now in progress, particularly in the technological universities, much may be learned.

*How do heads of schools learn their jobs? This article describes a research project to assess management problems in this field and find means of meeting them.*

# The Managerial Role —an experiment in training

HAROLD BARRY AND FRED TYE

Our maintained secondary schools are now being directed by those who probably constitute the last generation of heads who have successfully learned their craft, 'on the job', without any specific training. Hitherto, it has been the established practice to pick out a successful teacher, who appeared to have appropriate personal qualities, to promote him to a headship, expect him to pick up the experience and skills which he needed, as he went along, and then to regard him as 'fully trained' for the rest of his career. This tradition is now being widely questioned and there is a growing consensus of opinion that there must be better ways of equipping heads for the complex, diverse and exacting problems with which they are confronted. Small schools, serving a society which was in the main stable in character and conservative in purpose have been, or are being, replaced by much larger schools, in a society which is making deliberate investment in innovation. The pace of change, in these respects, is rapid and shows every sign of acceleration.

This new sense of urgency about 'training' and equipping heads is paralleled by the general realisation in industry and commerce that in-service training, mid-career re-training and staff development are absolutely essential for those whose working life will have to take account of the social, economic and technological changes likely to take place between now and the early years of the twenty-first century. Moreover, the effective use of manpower and of resources is probably more crucial in education than in many sectors of the national life; education is a highly labour-intensive industry, it forms by far the largest item of expenditure in all local government budgets, and it has secured a rapidly-increasing share of the gross national product, until it now commands a greater share of the national resources than any other item of expenditure, including defence. Whether education's share can be still further increased must be a matter for anxious speculation by all those who are concerned about the development of the education service. But there can be no doubt that we shall all have to become much more conscious of cost-efficiency and productivity if we are to make the most effective use of all the resources of accommodation, finance, equipment and manpower which we deploy.

Seen against this background, the role of the head in managing the basic unit of the service is probably crucial. It has become increasingly apparent that this role is nowadays not only markedly different from the role of an assistant teacher in nature, in content and in the skills and experience which it demands, but that it requires expertise which is outside the normal experience of a schoolmaster, not excluding

those who have had some administrative experience either as heads of department or housemasters or in any other responsible post. Confronted with the large, diverse and complex communities often in difficult physical circumstances, which our secondary schools have now become, or are rapidly becoming, even the most experienced heads find that they need help and support in preparing themselves to tackle their job in a new context, and they look for opportunities of drawing upon management expertise developed in other fields of human enterprise. Even those heads who fight shy of thinking of themselves as managers would be willing to admit that there may be an educational parallel to the industrial concept of the manager. For the successful head, like the successful manager, is surely one who:

(i) Discerns his objectives and establishes an order of priority.

(ii) Devises and implements the means of achieving these objectives.

(iii) Sets up machinery for continuous judgment, assessment and feedback, to test whether the objectives are being attained.

Accordingly, the University of Manchester, in October, 1967, set up a teaching-research project, financed by an initial two-year grant from the Department of Education and Science, which was subsequently extended to the end of 1970. Thereafter it is hoped to obtain a new research grant to cover a further two or three years. Professor T. E. Chester, Head of the Department of Social Administration has overall responsibility for the project. The objectives were, and still are:

(1) To identify the main managerial functions of heads and deputy heads, and the principles lying behind the internal management, organization and administration of secondary schools.

(2) To identify the skills and tools of management required to perform these functions successfully.

(3) To discover how these skills and tools can best be acquired by heads and deputy heads.

(4) To evaluate the degree of success, if any, achieved by the project in attaining these objectives.

(5) To identify the most effective pattern, content and teaching techniques for courses of in-service training for adults, with professional qualifications and considerable experience, which would be particularly relevant in the education service.

Full and cordial consultation took place with the 24 local authorities in the north-west region, and a working party of experienced, practising heads rendered yeoman service in helping the university to identify its immediate objectives and to establish an accepted pattern.

There emerged from these consultations a programme for:

1. A course of management and work-study seminars for senior education officers. These seminars have followed the same general pattern as the study-conferences for heads, (which are described below), but they are outside the scope of this article.

2. A series of study-conferences, each limited to approximately 20 members, who were to be nominated by, and whose fees and expenses were to be paid in full, by LEAs. They are called study-conferences, not courses, because it is a basic tenet of the philosophy on which they are based that they should demand continuous involve-

ment and participation by those taking part, within an overall pattern planned by the directing staff.

The first study-conference took place in the autumn term of 1968 and the sixth is now completed. Two of them have been for experienced heads, two for newly-appointed heads and two for deputy heads. A longer period of involvement than is offered by most courses of educational in-service training was felt to be an essential factor, but it was obvious that an extended absence of heads or deputies from their schools would raise a number of major difficulties. The accepted compromise has been to spread each study-conference over one school term. Members are in residence for a week at the beginning and end, and they meet for eight weekly sessions, on Wednesday afternoon and evening, in between. This experiment of extending what amounts, roughly, to the equivalent of a three-week full-time course to continued involvement over a whole academic term, has become a distinctive feature of the project.

The Conferences have enjoyed the enormous advantage of access to Holly Royde College, the university's adult education centre in Manchester. Comfortable study bedrooms, first-class seminar rooms, with common room and bar facilities, combined with meticulous attention to the reception and well-being of those in residence, have all helped to enable each study-conference to settle down quickly into a coherent group, in which full, frank and friendly discussion has been rapidly achieved. Most of the Wednesday sessions, throughout each term, have been held at centres outside the university, either in colleges of education or in hotels with conference facilities. This has been deliberate policy, in order that the travelling time and expenses of those taking part should be equalised, and that the conferences should make themselves known in different parts of the region.

Each study-conference has been designed for a particular group (heads or deputy heads) but an important element of cross-fertilisation has been maintained, by inviting authorities to nominate some members of their own administrative or advisory staffs, together with college of education lecturers. Of the 102 members who have taken part in the six study-conferences arranged so far, 49 have been heads, 32 deputy heads, six LEA administrators, six LEA advisers and nine college of education lecturers. Variety has also been a distinguishing characteristic of the team of lecturers, who have been drawn from many fields of relevant experience, including schools, colleges of education and of further education, universities, industry and commerce. Particular care has been taken to achieve a balance between the 'shop-talk' of professionals, and exposure to new and challenging ideas drawn from other fields of experience.

The first week of each study-conference begins with a survey of the contemporary economic, social and educational scene, intended to sketch the background against which secondary schools have to be administered. Attention is then directed to the principles of management, and to their application in the secondary school context, with identification of the particular skills and tools which this requires and an examination of the administrative, organisational and communication structures which effective management demands. The weekly sessions are then devoted to an examination, in depth, of particular areas in which the role of the head is exercised (e.g., external relations,

internal administration, pastoral care, internal assessment, job analysis, selection and interviewing). In the final week the thinking of the conferences is concentrated upon the curriculum, the time-table, and the design of schools, as instruments of policy, and to other professional skills which are now at the head's disposal, such as counselling.

Most aspects of the conferences are covered by a reading list, and are supported by a 'travelling' library. Some experimental use has been made of video-taped and audio-taped material, as a basis for discussion but, throughout the conferences, an important part is played by the consideration of case-studies. It has been found particularly useful to devote the opening session, on Wednesdays, to the examination of case-studies relevant to the theme of the lecture for that day, with the lecturer taking part in the case-study discussions. To make this effective, members are given their studies a week in advance, to allow time for preparation. A considerable library of case-studies has now been collected together, based upon material drawn from schools and local education authorities. This is altered only to disguise the identity of the source from which it was drawn, and it is presented in a form deliberately designed to provoke discussion of first principles arising from genuine situations. The basic purpose has been to achieve a distillation of philosophy and sound practice from realistic situations and problems.

A simple example may serve as illustration:

> 'You have been approached by the Acton Foundation, who are anxious to carry out an experimental pupil-centred teaching project in your history department, which is formal and authoritarian and employs traditional methods. You would like to co-operate with the Foundation. How would you tackle the head of the history department, who has taught in the school all his working life and is now within three years of retirement?'

This situation raises issues of principle in many areas. Discussion of them must take into account the following considerations: the limits of the delegated responsibility of a head of department; the importance of careful preparation and full consultation before significant changes are made; the validity of using a group of children for experimental work; the position of parents in relation to changes in curriculum, syllabus and teaching methods; the overall, long-term deployment of a school's resources over its various activities, and the effect of experimental work on the recruitment of staff, the total school situation and the school's reputation. So, from an apparently simple question, there arises discussion, in depth, of a number of interacting principles, which demonstrate the law of infinite repercussions! Consideration of such principles is a major part of the managerial function of a head.

As the end of the third year of the project approaches, it is time to assess how far its objectives have been achieved. The labours of the initial working party in the summer of 1967 appear to have been successful in identifying the main areas of management. Certainly, members of the conferences have expressed general satisfaction with their content and have suggested few additional topics. With the help of experts from many fields it can also be said, with a measure of confidence, that the identification of the skills and tools of management, in an educational context, has probably been as successful as the present state of knowledge permits. But the assessment of the extent to which

heads and deputy heads have learned anything of practical value from the conferences is, of course, much more difficult. Are they, in fact, 'better' heads after their conference than they were before? The word 'better' begs far too many questions, and the problem would be very much simpler if only there existed unique and 'correct' solutions to the problems with which a head is confronted: precise measurement of results would then be very much easier. This state of affairs does not exist, however, and therein probably lies one of the many fascinations of a head's work and responsibilities. Circumstances differ, and so do the personalities of all the people involved in any particular situation, so that no project such as this can hope to do more than identify the fundamental principles and skills, leaving each head to apply them in the particular circumstances of his own school. Nevertheless, the directors would hope that being a member of a Manchester study-conference has enabled each head who has taken part to begin to hammer out a consistent philosophy, to shape his aims and objectives, to recognise the educational and managerial principles upon which decisions are taken, to consider a variety of techniques for reaching and implementing decisions, and to work out for himself appropriate methods of managing his own organization and of assessing their effectiveness.

Much attention, in fact, has been paid to techniques of assessment. At the very beginning of the project an end-of-conference questionnaire was designed, and it was decided that members would be asked to make their own assessment of every detail, from domestic arrangements to teaching techniques, including a rating of every lecture or discussion session. An analysis of the completed questionnaires shows an encouraging degree of enthusiasm for the objectives which the conferences have set out to achieve, together with a number of welcome criticisms, either of individual lectures or of other features, many of which it has been possible to rectify as the project has progressed.

Such a degree of enthusiasm has been generated that every conference (so far) has decided, at the end of its term of study, to arrange for regular 'reunions', generally consisting of a talk before dinner, and of discussion after dinner, approximately twice a year. However, this manifest enthusiasm has its obvious dangers, in that euphoria may mask the real situation. Although it is a fundamental belief of the whole project that a term of involvement in thinking, reading and discussing is likely to leave some permanent mark, steps are now being taken to discover just how deep its effects have been.

In the summer term of 1970 the directors are to visit all the members of the first conference who have now been back in their schools for nearly two years. An attempt will be made to discover, as precisely as possible, what aspects of their work have been influenced by their involvement in the conference. Euphoria should now have faded and it is hoped that some hard evidence will be available. Moreover, all members of the two most recent conferences have been visited in their schools before their conferences began. The purpose of these preliminary visits was to discover their general philosophy and practice, and to identify their particular areas of difficulty. Following these preliminary visits, but before the conference, those taking part have been asked to complete an attitude questionnaire, designed to record their views on a number of basic questions covering many aspects of the role

of the head. The same questionnaire has then been completed at the end of the conference and, by comparing the two sets of responses, it is hoped to achieve a statistical measure of the extent to which members' thinking and practice have been influenced. Follow-up visits, after an appropriate interval, will then seek to discover to what extent their philosophy and practice have been modified, and how far those who have taken part feel that they have had positive and substantial help with the solution of their problems.

At an earlier stage in this article it was indicated that the project is designed to operate in two major areas:

(i) Analysing the role of the head, identifying the principles underlying all decisions, and indicating the skills and tools which successful educational decision-making demands;

(ii) Analysing the techniques of in-service training.

The present state of the evidence leaves no doubt that those who have taken part in this project have found the experience stimulating and provocative, besides being enjoyable. Many have gone so far as to imply that the conferences embody features which are not to be found in most other short courses. Many useful lessons are being learned, for example, about the most effective teaching techniques, the optimum size of discussion groups (which is deliberately varied), the usefulness and limitations of unstructured group discussions, without a chairman, with no prescribed answers to be found and with no reporting back, and the effectiveness of case-study material as a means of directing and stimulating discussion in depth.

*When the CSE examination was introduced, provision was made for schools to devise and conduct their own examinations. In one region, West Yorkshire and Lindsey, the opportunity has been taken up with enthusiasm.*

# Mode 3 CSE

R. G. CAPES

With the words 'And what was once a matter for argument becomes instead a challenge and an opportunity',* the then Secondary Schools Examinations Council signified in 1963 that the time had come for teachers and Regional Examining Boards to be made co-partners in the tutelage and advancement of the certificate of secondary education.

In the seven years that have elapsed since that time, considerable interest has been focused on the development of Mode 3, the internal examination externally moderated. The impact of Mode 3 in West Yorkshire and Lindsey has been considerable and shows no signs of abating. Commencing in 1966, the first year of the examination, a modest 400 syllabuses were lodged by schools and groups of schools; this number increased to 954 in 1968; some 1,173 were submitted for the examinations in 1970. The variety is legion: some may vary from Mode 1 merely in style and flavour; others are vastly different both in title and in examining techniques; in several the award of grades is based purely on assessment. All have been framed with local and individual needs in mind.

Mode 3 does not, however, flourish by accident for a sturdy growth, the omens must be propitious: a favourable environment in which the class teacher comes to know that he has a real contribution to make and, above all, his active encouragement by the Board in the achievement of worth-while aspirations. This is the real meaning of: *'a framework of constitutional and administrative arrangements which will recognise that the examinations are to be controlled by the teachers themselves and that the establishment of standards is to depend, in the last resort, on the collective judgement of teachers.' Since foundation, a major purpose of the work carried out by the West Yorkshire and Lindsey Regional Examining Board has been to find a way, both administrative and technical, in which 'teacher control of examinations and standards based on the collective judgement of teachers,' could be translated into working practice. The ideal has been for teacher control both of what is taught and of the exercise of examining judgement to be as close to the child as possible. In the achievement of this ideal, the board was helped considerably by the historical sequence of events and by the impatience of the teachers to explore the possibilities of CSE.

Immediately after the Board came into existence, as was natural, apart from the bare bones of the constitution, there was almost a complete vacuum at the centre; the secretariat had yet to be appointed; the

* Examinations Bulletin, No. 1.

regional subject panels had not been convened. In contrast, however, with this apparent vacuum, there was a ferment of involvement in the schools. The cornerstone of the constitution, that the region should be divided into local groups each containing some twenty or thirty schools, had already been laid: schools had joined in voluntary association one with another. Subsequently, the board was merely asked to ratify and place this liaison on a permanent basis. Fifteen local groups were established in this way, local government boundaries were not used as lines of demarcation: some local groups contained schools from both county councils and county boroughs. Within each local group, a committee which contained, *inter alia*, the head teacher of the associating schools, had appointed local subject panels of class teachers. Discussion was taking place at the grass roots; questions were being asked about the content of syllabuses which would best meet the needs of the children; about educational priorities; about the accuracy of assessment as a measuring instrument; about the interpretation to be placed upon the CSE grades, etc. There had sprung up, in effect, fifteen embryo teachers' centres long before their time. There was exchange in experience, traffic in ideas and a thirst for knowledge. The board immediately decided that their first examinations should not take place until 1966. A full year was spent in whistle stops around the region, talking and debating with large gatherings of teachers, experimenting in methods, formulating plans for intensive and continuous in-training schemes. It was a year of patient and detailed explanation, of coaxing, where coaxing was necessary, to try something that seemed new, of opening eyes to the possibilities of Mode 3, both as a mode of examining and in terms of curricular development.

In the event, it proved a year which paid incalculable dividends and laid the foundation of much that was to follow. At an early date, it became apparent that, although there may be one genus of Mode 3, so far as West Yorkshire and Lindsey was concerned, there were three species; a single school; a group of two or more like-minded schools; and thirdly, the local group. Discussions with the teachers speedily established that the aspirations of a school may be battened into helpless frustrations by an administration that clung to past tradition in examinations and relentlessly pursued, above all else, precision and tidiness. It was soon realised that a request for multiple copies of the syllabus in traditional form to be lodged some two years in advance of the examination, would immediately and effectively stifle the growth of Mode 3. With this in mind, a decision was reached that for a teacher who does not wish to prepare a detailed syllabus outlining the content and sequence of a course (so limiting to some extent ability to make his teaching responsive to the developing needs of pupils) it shall be sufficient to lodge a statement of intent. This indicates educational priorities and objectives, gives examples of how they are to be realised and establishes the criteria by which judgements are to be made.

The analysis of Mode 3 into species, the settlement of acceptable regulations for the lodging of 'syllabuses', were mundane and minor matters, incidental to the main theme. What really exercised the board during the year was to contrive, to concert with the teachers, how to interpret and give practical effect to such phrases as: 'collective judgement' and 'the standards of the examination should be those of the schools; they (the SSEC) have not decided that each school or group of

schools shall be free to apply its own or their own standards, but rather that all schools must decide a common standard.'* There was doubt, or perhaps lack of knowledge about many things at that time, but one principle was abundantly clear: under no circumstances would the standards be those of any one individual or group of individuals; they would not be imposed by either chief moderators or chief examiners, rather would these officials be schooled and educated by the collective opinion of the teaching profession. A condition precedent to the commencement of the examinations in the region was the establishment and setting in motion of machinery to derive this elusive 'collective opinion'. The sole means available was empiric. Group by group and subject by subject teachers were assembled and asked to make value judgements in terms of CSE grades on work that was placed in front of them. The consensus of opinion was measured and recorded. Perhaps for the first time in their careers teachers were given the opportunity to measure their views against those of their colleagues. The exercises came to be known as agreement trials and culminated in regional trials,† which were convened by the chief subject moderators. Each local group was invited to send its two 'most normal' members per subject. It was at these sessions that teachers, though geographically miles apart, became aware of how closely their judgements tallied; it was at these sessions too, regional standards were born and adopted by the chief moderators.

The year of moratorium not only contributed to the solution of professional problems which were peculiarly within the province of teachers, it also prescribed what pattern of administration would be compatible. Administration is best described as the meeting place of theory and practice; the one must be conditioned by the other. Knowing that agreement trials were to occupy a dominant position in procedure, it would have been myopic to have ignored the existence of the local group; it would have been prodigal to have squandered the opportunities that the concept of local groups had to offer as a unit of administration. In the course of time, therefore, there has grown up between the board and the local groups a relationship which has some affinity with a scheme of divisional administration; local groups have persuasive authority in all matters, in others there is absolute delegation.

Without the active participation of the local group committee (the head teachers of each school within the group) and the local subject panels, the whole character of the board would change. Alliance in a common purpose, could be replaced by an image of 'us' and 'them'. Agreement trials are an annual feature. They must be. Teachers who have moved into the area must be inducted and given the opportunity of playing a part in the formulation of the regional standard. In the trials, there are involved the majority of teachers drawn from the majority of secondary schools in the region. The organisation is essentially local: it is delegated to the local group committee, through their secretary, who is paid a modest honorarium by the board. Resulting from the trials there are appointed officials of the board; inter-school assessors; ladies and gentlemen who, in their judgement, reflect the collective opinion of their colleagues. They are appointed by the local group committee and paid by the board; their assignment is to validate the school grades

* Examination Bulletin No. 1.

† See Examinations Bulletin No. 5 for a full explanation on the conduct of agreement trials.

under Mode 3 and non-written sections of the work, such as course work, under Modes 1 and 2. In all this, the board merely supplies booklets (outlining procedure to be followed) and all official forms. The appointment of inter school assessors is, however, merely introductory to the work of the local group committee. Picture to yourselves what must happen in a board handling over 1000 syllabuses under Mode 3, in addition to a further 150 under Modes 1 and 2. Each of these contains its own scheme of examination; assessment (validation) is required for each Mode 3 and for many of the schools under Modes 1 and 2. Make the problems more complex: bring it down to the level of the single school: candidates will be entered for a range of subjects which may involve all three modes. It would be an exacting task for anyone in a central office, to read through each syllabus, solemnly extracting the precise requirements of assessment and then to repeat this performance for some 300 or 400 schools. An exacting task indeed, but one which is capped by another, even more formidable: the drawing up of a time-table of visits for each assessor in each subject. By the very nature of all that is involved, these arrangements must be made locally.

The Board assists to some extent by the provision of *pro formae*: thereafter the burden is shouldered by the local group committee. To this same committee there is also delegated the drawing up of the time-table of Mode 3 examinations within the area, the recommendation of payments to be made for the setting and marking of group examination papers. In all this, the local group secretary is a key figure: he is fed all relevant figures made avilable through the computer service showing the state of entry and the performance of candidates. Within the limits of his geographical location, he knows exactly as much and probably more than the regional secretary. The lines of communication with the group committee are strong and personal; they meet perhaps three times per year; each meeting is attended by the secretary or assistant secretary to the board. Annually in July, representatives of the fifteen groups discuss with the examinations committee the time-table of events and any changes in procedure that seem desirable for the coming year. A close fraternity has grown up within the groups and between the groups and the board. One group celebrates the close of examinations each year by a social occasion known by the felicitious name of a harvest thanksgiving.

But of course, the fostering of Mode 3, or rather the ensuring that no school is prised loose from its genuine choice of mode, cannot begin and end with the establishment of strong lines of communication, nor with the adoption of a democratic approach which guarantees that the voice of the class teacher is heard loud and clear. The administration must actually assist the school in achieving objectives. It must assist by the procuring of advice when so requested; it must assist by placing at the disposal of the schools all the expertise that is available for Modes 1 and 2. The production of examination papers posed an early problem. The board was under a statutory duty to print examination papers for Modes 1 and 2, and yet, schools opting for Mode 3 merited help and encouragement above all others: the teachers had voluntarily undertaken to experiment in new media: the setting of examination papers which must measure up to national standards. The candidates had a right to have in front of them the same wealth and quality of illustration that had been introduced in class as an essential of the teaching method. Short runs are costly in the extreme. What is a professional

exercise for the teacher is also a business concern for the administrator. An internal unit has been established which now prints some 600 examination papers each year—Modes 1, 2 and 3—in addition to all examination material. The pre-testing of examination papers is not the prerogative of Mode 1! At certain times of the year, the offices of the board are transformed into a power-house for the benefit of the schools. The printing unit is also closely linked to the prime objective of the board as defined in the memorandum and articles of association: 'To promote, advance and encourage education, learning and research'. A CSE board, through teacher control, is inextricably involved in the learning process. Publishers may eventually print the results of successful experiments: the board is equipped to print, almost at the drop of a hat, anything that will assist during the experimental stage. It has recently undertaken, at the request of the regional subject panel for religious knowledge, the printing of two booklets, both biographies, which were not viable propositions in the trade.

Although, as when undertaking printing assignments, the centre of gravity may seem to have moved to such an extent that the board is almost the hand-maiden of the school, where other functions are concerned and, above all, in the maintenance of standards, there is no shift from the traditional position. There can be no delegation of authority and responsibility in the award of final grades. In theory, once agreement trials have been successfully concluded, the same standards will be applied throughout all modes. Nothing, however, is left to chance and expectation. To make assurance doubly sure, the school grades, validated by an inter-school assessor in Mode 3, and the grades thrown up by the chief examiner in Modes 1 and 2, are dubbed provisional. A rigorous computer analysis is undertaken to reveal by subject, by school, by group and by region, the percentage allocation to each grade, the mean grade and standard deviation. This panoramic digest is made available to the chief subject moderator; if there are any surprises, if there is anything which would seem to warrant further investigation, he undertakes discussion personally or through an assistant. It is not until there is complete satisfaction, both in theory and in practice, that the final grades are presented to the examinations committee.

It is sometimes asked what are the special difficulties in adminstrating a board with a heavy commitment to Mode 3. They are certainly not financial: contrary to general assumption, the fees can be contained with relative ease; the staff of the central office in West Yorkshire is numerically the smallest in the country; this is to be expected. In a teacher controlled examination all professional decisions are made in the field and as near the child as possible. No special difficulties are acknowledged; they have a habit of solution when shared by many. There is, however, a ready acknowledgement that for continued existence, the board is entirely dependent upon the goodwill of the LEAs, the dedicated service of the local group secretaries, the maintenance of a high standard of attendance and integrity within the local subject panels during the conduct of agreement trials, the support and ready co-operation of the class teacher. It is through the comradeship of Mode 3 that, to parody Louis Macneice,* many an ingrown soul has enjoyed an outing, that talents and skills, previously unshared, have been placed at the disposal of the board.

---

* Louis Macneice—*Jig Saw 11.*

*In the July 1970 issue of Trends (No. 18) an article on the relationships between the culture and the linguistic development of immigrants appeared. This article stresses the pressing need to help the younger age group among immigrants.*

# Language Teaching and the Young Immigrant

J. H. MUNDY

Some years ago when the first measures were being taken to deal constructively with the challenge presented to schools by the large influx of immigrant children, efforts tended to be directed principally towards the teaching of English language. Many of these children were non-English speaking, or had an imperfect knowledge of English, and it was felt that one of their first needs in the difficult process of settling down in their new environment was to be able to communicate adequately in English. In 1963 the Ministry of Education published a pamphlet, *English for Immigrants*, offering guidance to teachers of immigrant children. Although this gave advice on a wide variety of issues raised by the presence of immigrants in schools and other educational establishments, it dealt particularly with the principles governing the teaching of English to immigrant children and adults. In one of its chapters, 'English in Schools', it had this to say about the provision to be made for immigrant children at the infant stage:

> 'Naturally, the problem is simplest at the infant stage, because the younger the child is, the less English he has to acquire to catch up with his fellows. But though it be less, it is certainly not negligible. One or two children from overseas in a normal class will absorb a good deal of English simply by participating in the ordinary life and work of the community with perhaps a little special attention from the teacher as opportunity presents itself. But this process of learning can be speeded up and rendered more effective, especially in the early stages, if the overseas children from several classes can be regularly taken out into the hall or playground perhaps by the headmistress and encouraged by specially devised games and play to learn and practise a simple English which is already familiar to the English children themselves. This method of attack will be most successful when the overseas children are distributed in small numbers over several classes. When any one class contains more than about one-third of such children, the problem becomes more complex; such a class should certainly be kept small and much of the work in which language is important might be done in two separate groups. Since a child from overseas will learn much from sitting beside an English child for at least some part of the day, tactful care should be taken to see that the overseas children do not form a little clique of their own. A new arrival may be attached at first to another child who speaks the same language, but the attachment should not be regarded as permanent. It is certainly true that the atmosphere of informality which today characterises most

infant classes is conducive to the easy learning and absorption of language, and the demonstrative and realistic approach commonly adopted for acquiring the mother tongue is also most appropriate to the learning of a second language.'

Now there is nothing basically unsound in all this and much of the advice here given remains as valuable now as it was in 1963, but it was based on the generally accepted assumption that the non-English speaking child who is allowed to live the day-to-day experiences of the infant classroom will, by the end of a year or two, have assimilated English. At that time there seemed to be no strong reason for disbelieving that by some process of osmosis young immigrant children in the infant school pick up English. Moreover, in 1963 the proportion of young non-English speaking children was less than it is now, and this clearly influenced the way in which teachers thought and worked.

## Investigation

In 1967 the Schools Council issued its Working Paper No. 13: *English for the Children of Immigrants* in which an account was given of the survey undertaken in 1965 by Miss June Derrick on the size and composition of the immigrant intake in schools and the nature of the teaching problems thereby created. The working paper also outlined the principles underlying the development project which the council established as a result of the findings of Miss Derrick's survey at Leeds University. This concerned the teaching of English to children aged 8–13 of Asian and Southern European immigrants speaking little or no English. The ideas expressed in the working paper on the teaching of immigrant children of infant school age did not differ in any marked degree from those expressed in the Ministry of Education's pamphlet published four years earlier:

> 'In some areas non-English speaking immigrants are so distributed that no more than three of four belong to any one class, in the hope that by these means they will be easily assimilated socially and will pick up English in the context of normal classes and playground companionship. Opinions expressed by the teachers and local education office staff during the Council's survey suggested that apart from very young children this procedure did not give the desired result, but postponed the time when more concerted efforts had to be made to teach English to the children concerned. . . .
>
> In lower junior classes and in the infant school, withdrawal groups or special classes are often considered unnecessary. Teachers used to organising group work find that they can divide their time among their pupils and give small groups of non-English speaking immigrants an adequate amount of special attention each day. . . . as soon as numbers build up, as they are seen to be doing in the infant schools in areas where many immigrants have settled, the problems become more pressing. . . . the methods of the primary school are in fact ideal for adaptation to language teaching. The encouragement of the child's exploration of his experience and the use of activities, with the emphasis on learning and doing rather than on formal teaching, provide an excellent framework for the second-language learning process.

But in it there was already some indication of Miss Derrick's growing

belief that something more specific by way of English teaching was required by many very young children:

> 'No special provision is so far being considered for children of immigrants in the infant school. But it may be that some of the project materials will be of use at this stage and will commend themselves to infants' teachers, and the situation in infant schools is being closely watched by the team.'

As a result of Miss Derrick's eventual recommendation to the Schools Council that a specific enquiry be conducted into the education of infant immigrants, arrangements were made for an ILEA infant teacher, Mrs Diana Stoker, to be seconded to the project at Leeds and to spend a year, 1967/68, looking at the methods by which infant immigrant children were taught, to identify special difficulties and to make recommendations. In a report of her findings, published recently as Schools Council Working Paper, No. 31, (*Immigrant Children in Infants' Schools*), Mrs Stoker maintains that language for educational purposes cannot be acquired in an haphazard manner and that some kind of systematic and controlled development is necessary; she argues the need for research into the language necessary for learning to take place at the infant level and advocates that infant teachers be given clear guide-lines in language teaching.

## New Thinking

During this period an increasing number of teachers was beginning to realise that the hitherto accepted belief that infant immigrant children would simply pick up English by being in a situationally active English-speaking infant school environment was not always supported by results. They began to find that although this haphazard approach to picking up English enabled the young immigrant children to make themselves understood, many tended to use isolated words, to experience difficulty in handling verb endings and word positions, to acquire faulty speech patterns, and, at the worst, to practise a form of pidgin English which was extremely difficult to correct at a later stage and which put them at serious disadvantage when they moved from infant classes into junior classes. While recognising that language played an important part in the infant school, they began to see that it was neither presented in a consistently controlled fashion nor systematically built up in any way. The native-born English child might respond to this type of language presentation, but it was unsuited to the needs of a great number of immigrant children.

HMIs aware of this problem from their own personal observation of immigrant children and their talks with infant teachers, brought together in January 1969 a group of experienced teachers, advisers and lecturers to discuss the education of children in a multi-racial society and in particular the need to introduce some form of controlled language work at the infant school stage. Those attending offered clear evidence of the grave deficiencies in English language shown by immigrant children who had passed through infant schools to junior schools, and by secondary school immigrant pupils who had been in this country long enough to have passed through infant and junior schools and who were failing because of linguistic inadequacy. They agreed that something more specific in language teaching was required

for such children but emphasised the need to respect and preserve the principles and practices of proved worth in infant schools. Much the same conclusions were reached by another group of educationists who attended a similar conference organised by the DES in February 1970.

## Help to Teachers

A number of initiatives now seem likely to throw increasing light on the needs of young English language learners, to offer constructive help to infant teachers and to produce appropriate teaching and learning materials. After studying Mrs Stoker's report the Schools Council has made an additional grant for the period 1969/71 to enable the Leeds research group to undertake development work on the teaching of English to non-English speakers in infant schools. Two infant teachers and an additional linguist have been recruited and have begun their work by establishing contacts and exchanging ideas with teachers' groups. The team is inclined to believe that any directed work should be undertaken in the multi-racial infant class, rather than with groups of children withdrawn or totally separate from the class; it should concentrate on helping teachers to develop increased awareness of children's language needs and suggesting ways of meeting these within the existing framework of the infant classroom. The team will begin by producing a series of short guides or pamphlets for infant teachers showing how language can be developed through everyday activities in the infant class.

Another programme which may soon begin to exercise an influence in the area under review is that about to be developed by the National Council for Educational Technology. At an early stage the Council began to concern itself with the needs of young children from deprived homes, including immigrants, growing up in a limited educational and cultural environment. At a number of meetings called by the Council and attended by representatives of HM Inspectorate and the BBC, the contribution that a wide range of audio-visual materials might make towards meeting these needs was discussed. As a result Mrs E. C. Mee, consultant on primary education to the School Broadcasting Council, was asked to survey existing conditions, resources and needs. Her report confirmed the Council's belief in the value of undertaking a three-year programme to promote the development, evaluation and large-scale production of audio-visual materials for use in the education of deprived children between the ages of four and eight. The programme will build upon and reinforce the use which teachers are already making of audio-tape, filmstrip, slides, cine-loop films, radio and television, and well illustrated books. Materials produced will be designed so that the child can use them without constant supervision and will take into consideration the need for a systematic controlled presentation of language; their value will increase when the child and the teacher discuss the stories, pictures and sounds together.

Thirdly, the education priority area action-research programme is interested in the language development of young children. This is a research project initiated in 1968 following a recommendation of the Plowden Committee and financed by the Department of Education and Science and the Social Science Research Council. One of its major objects is to raise the educational performance of young children, and its four area directors have concerned themselves with the development

of language programmes. In Liverpool and the West Riding the Peabody Language Development Kit, elaborated in the USA, is being used in nursery schools and pre-school playgroups. This provides a full range of teaching materials based upon the programmed introduction and presentation of language patterns and structures. It is being used in certain schools and the progress of the children involved is being compared with that of children in a number of control schools. The Peabody Kit has proved valuable in the American situation, for which, of course, it was designed, and it is possible that its use experimentally in our schools may point the way towards the production of comparable but more appropriate materials for use in the English situation. The EPA teams have also initiated a number of exercises aimed at developing the children's use of language; in Liverpool, for example, the introduction of a playgroup bus, of animal rooms, of holiday schemes, of exhibitions of children's work in local shops and doctor's waiting rooms. All are aimed at involving parents and the community in children's activities. Although this research programme is not specifically intended for areas with immigrant populations, immigrant children live in the areas in which the programme is operating, and its work is likely to produce valuable information on the effectiveness of presenting English language to young children in a more controlled way than has hitherto been the case in this country.

## Structure and Spontaneity

There is growing acceptance that in the case of non-English speaking children—and possibly in the case also of linguistically deprived native-born children—the informal infant programme needs to be supplemented and complemented by some form of direct patterned language teaching. This teaching is not intended to replace the learning through living and social experience in the classroom, but aims at insuring that the basic structures of the English language are mastered systematically. Infant teachers have understandably appeared unwilling to give their immigrant pupils any special language instruction in the belief that this would be entirely artificial and contrary to the basic principles of infant teaching. The unexplained use of the 'structured approach' has done little to allay their misgivings.

The type of teaching envisaged need not diminish the importance of a spontaneous approach to learning through the children's individual or shared experience gained in play, nor prevent the development of the unforced relationship between teacher and child which is to be found in the good infant classroom; the systematisation advocated in the teaching of English need not lead to rigidity or to a lack of wealth and variety in language; it does not require the adoption of more formal teaching procedures. It is rather a matter of the teacher being mindful of language structures and ensuring that in her speech with the children she makes repetitive use of phrases, questions and answers which will help them in an informal yet informed way to build up a body of language methodically. The value of a wise and sensitive choice of stories, poems and songs remains unchanged—as does giving the children frequent opportunities for conversing with adults.

Infant teachers in general are not and cannot be expected to be knowledgeable about or skilled in the teaching of English as a second language, but if a modified approach is to be successfully developed

they will need to know more about the structure of language and be more sensitive to the opportunities offered in the infant classroom for language pattern reinforcement. But they need guidance about which patterns of language to teach at the infant stage and in what order; they need to be provided with a scheme of language items as a guide to the systematic build-up of the language required by young immigrant children—and other children with comparable linguistic handicaps. These skills are needed so that children can discover about the world around them, interact socially, express their feelings, and, in short, are helped to achieve a linguistic development which will complement fully their conceptual development.

This will only become possible when the right patterns of language development have been established and a full description of infant classroom English is made available. To this end a survey needs to be undertaken of the language used by children and their teachers at this stage so that lexical and syntactical items in common use can be identified, selected and graded for systematic presentation in the classroom. The close collaboration of practising teachers will be essential in such a survey because factors other than frequency need to be taken into consideration when items are being selected and graded; teachability, classroom needs, and the creation and sustaining of interest must also be borne in mind. The items chosen must be presented in a meaningful context and only those with first-hand infant teaching experience will be able to advise on how graded patterns can be made to arise naturally out of appropriate infant classroom situations. Selection and graded presentation of items may also need to be modified to take into account the peculiar difficulties of different racial/linguistic groups.

*During 1969 regional conferences* were held to discuss the future of modern languages teaching in secondary schools. Two of those who attended discuss some of the points raised.*

# Modern Languages—a Dialogue

**David Rowlands,** Director of Schools Council Modern Languages Project.
**Brian Ellis,** Headmaster of Up Holland Grammar School, Wigan.

ROWLANDS: May we first of all consider the case of languages other than French as first foreign language. We must recognise that the vast expansion of primary school French teaching in the past few years has operated in many cases to the detriment of other foreign languages. Schools which had a long tradition of teaching languages such as German or Spanish as first foreign language have had to abandon or postpone the introduction of these languages in order to provide continuation in French for pupils from their local primary schools. While I would feel that there is an overwhelming case for the continuation of French by those children who have been well and successfully taught in their primary schools, there will in most schools almost invariably be a percentage of children entering at eleven, who have not done French. Is there not a strong case to be made out for starting these children on a foreign language other than French, provided that they constitute a viable group in terms of numbers, rather than starting them on French three years after the remaining children?

ELLIS: Without discussing what constitutes 'viability', I agree that even a small percentage of children entering the secondary school without primary French will have to be taught as a separate group. It is therefore feasible to start them on a different foreign language at eleven, instead of having them trailing behind all except the weakest in French throughout their school years, or catching up in grammar but without the same oral proficiency and its attendant advantages.

ROWLANDS: What would you see as possible advantages of this course of action?

ELLIS: Well, I feel it may be a positive advantage for these two distinct groups of pupils not to be able to compare progress in the same language, as children inevitably will,

*A report of these conferences is available, price 9s. from The Publications Officer, Schools Council Modern Languages Project, Micklegate House, Micklegate, York, who can also supply specimen timetables prepared by Mr Ellis.

provided that German or Spanish, etc., are given equal status, and are not condemned as easy options for those who have not had the privilege of doing primary French.

ROWLANDS: For convenience sake let us say German for the alternative language, but understand that we mean also Spanish, Russian, Italian or Chinese. What problems and difficulties are likely to arise?

ELLIS: One problem which would have to be faced in a school with only one set of 11+ German would be the possibility of a very wide range of ability, particularly if this were the alternative to, say, three sets of French. I do not consider this a great objection, but traditionally French is taught in sets or classes roughly corresponding to ability: in my own school, we are experimenting with the teaching of French in non-streamed forms up to the end of the fourth year.

ROWLANDS: Do you find this successful?

ELLIS: I am not sure if it is succeeding with the weakest (maybe nothing would), but they do hear other pupils speaking better French than they would in a fourth set; most realise they are not very good but do not feel that they are hopeless, as might be the case if they had been 'dumped' in the bottom set: at least their morale and attitude are better.

ROWLANDS: But what about those teachers who are convinced of the value of setting in modern languages?

ELLIS: They may prefer to teach French even to a small group of 11+ beginners with the intention of fitting them into a system of sets by possibly the third year. In that case, it would probably require at least two forms beginning German to produce a limited setting system.

ROWLANDS: It has been suggested that one solution might be to have a separate form for the German beginners.

ELLIS: I would not like to see the German beginners in a separate form; more and more secondary schools are organising their first years into non-streamed forms: in order to mix the children thoroughly, so that they become integrated in their new school and do not hark back to primary school loyalties, one would have to set the French and German across the whole year—a nuisance, but probably no more.

ROWLANDS: At our conferences it was suggested that staffing would be a major obstacle to such a scheme. What is your view?

ELLIS: Staffing in the individual schools could present some difficulty initially, as with modern teaching methods one would need teachers who were orally proficient in two languages (and it is sometimes difficult to find those who are really fluent in one!)—but this problem would resolve itself as the amount of German increased.

If there is to be a rapid expansion in the teaching of alternative foreign languages, it may even bring some alleviation to the present increasing shortage of French teachers,

which is likely to be further accentuated by the expansion of primary French and the introduction of French into more and more secondary and comprehensive classes. But while the supply of German and Spanish teachers appears to be more than adequate at the moment (or conversely, some German and Spanish teachers do not seem to be able to find appropriate jobs), a rapid expansion will quickly produce a shortage—unless the universities, and more particularly the colleges of education, are prepared to increase the number and capacity of their courses. There is a ridiculous bottleneck for would-be linguists at university level: there are insufficient places for all the good candidates who apply, yet there are certainly insufficient French graduates in teaching, with the prospect of insufficient numbers in other languages too.

ROWLANDS: Would you include Russian as a suitable language for 11+ beginners?

ELLIS: I do feel Russian is too difficult and strange for young children, whereas they should be able to make fairly rapid progress with the rather closer sound and grammatical systems of Western European languages. The experience of colleagues who have tried Russian with 11 or 13 year-old beginners appears to confirm my impression.

ROWLANDS: I'm sure that teachers using the Nuffield/Schools Council Russian course would want to challenge your last statement, as their experience would suggest that, given well planned and attractive materials, Russian can hold its own with any of the other languages as suitable for introduction at 11.

ELLIS: Well, I speak with no personal authority here and I am prepared to bow before the wrath of the Russian teachers! To return to the point, if we are to develop the teaching of other languages at 11, a proposal for which I have an instinctive sympathy, and whose merits are amply argued in the report on the conferences, it calls for a national effort. I have had children coming into my catchment area who have learnt Spanish from 11, and yet the nearest school at which Spanish is taught is nine miles away, with an awkward bus service. At least the near monopoly of French does ensure that, with growing national mobility, children can fit in to the timetable of a new school almost anywhere in the country. The Schools Council modern languages project will need to give very strong encouragement to schools to develop other modern languages and to persuade neighbouring schools to teach different foreign languages.

ROWLANDS: May we take a second point here. Amongst those who have been taught French in the primary school there are likely to be some children who, for reasons which may or may not be directly connected with their linguistic aptitude, for example, inadequate teaching, prolonged absence, change of school or other factors, have fallen behind in

French and in some cases may have developed strong reactions against French as a result. Is there not a case for giving these pupils the opportunity of a fresh start with a new language such as Spanish or German?

ELLIS: I have never come across a pupil who, after a poor start in one language, for whatever the reason, was able to make satisfactory progress in another, however hopefully he might begin. On the other hand, it is generally recognised that a language occasionally 'clicks' with pupils who have plodded along with little apparent success, merely as a function of time. A strong reaction against French is likely to transfer very quickly to Spanish or German, once difficult grammar or vocabulary have to be tackled.

ROWLANDS: May we now turn to the case for the early teaching of a second foreign language. The Nuffield/Schools Council courses in Spanish, Russian and German have been planned on the assumption that a percentage of those pupils who had studied French from the age of eight would be able to begin the study of these languages at 11 or 12, whereas the more usual starting age is 13 or 14. The case for an earlier beginning rests fundamentally on our belief, borne out in practice, that the development of the aural/oral skills is a lengthy process, and that if pupils are to reach the level of oral competence which we feel to be desirable, and which corresponds with the goal set by the examining boards in their 'alternative' O-levels, then at least four, if not five, years of study are essential, if one assumes that the normal allocation in the timetable is unlikely to exceed four periods per week. It is quite feasible for able students to achieve a reasonable degree of competence in the *written* language in two years, and this is quite a usual pattern where pupils are prepared for the traditional O-level examination in Spanish or German, though most teachers would agree that it is a pretty joyless grind.

ELLIS: To interpose briefly, it has been suggested that one reason for the recognised tendency for pupils to switch their allegiance from French to German in the sixth form is that they have become jaded after six years of French, whereas German is still relatively fresh. It would be interesting to know of any schools where German is taught as the first language, with French introduced later, to see whether the reverse trend occurs there.

ROWLANDS: I am not suggesting that a second language should be started except by those who have shown considerable linguistic aptitude in the course of learning French in the primary school. The major objection which is put forward against an early start to a second foreign language for these children is one of timetabling. Many headteachers have suggested that it is simply not practicable to timetable for a second foreign language in the first or second year, given the competing demands of other subjects. Have you found this to be so?

ELLIS: As for the practicability of introducing a second language in the first or second years, it was common until very recently for French *and* Latin to be taught in the first year, with Greek and ancient history to be added in some schools in the following year. But now we are under pressure to increase the allocation of time for Nuffield science, practical subjects are to be expanded, the humanities project may make greater demands on our time, though perhaps the statutory period of RE could usefully disappear into this!

ROWLANDS: Let us stick to languages. Given these competing demands, how feasible is it to timetable for the early introduction of a second language?

ELLIS: A second language certainly can be introduced early in the course—this is where the English headmaster's treasured freedom to decide his own curriculum comes in. I would defend this—naturally—but it is remarkable how similar most grammar school timetables are in fact. With sufficient persuasion, cajoling, or what you will, we shall probably nearly all move in the same direction. The argument will not be about feasibility, but about priorities, or, if you like, prejudices. I have produced some draft timetables which show how this problem might be tackled.

ROWLANDS: Another problem raised by headteachers at our regional conferences was that of teacher supply. It seemed that heads were reluctant to introduce a language other than French for fear that, though they might have a teacher capable of teaching the language, they would be unable to replace this teacher if he or she were to leave. Have you encountered this problem and how do you feel it might be solved?

ELLIS: My own experience is limited, but I certainly have the impression that there is a good supply of German teachers, at least locally and temporarily, as I have had several enquiries from candidates with main German and subsidiary French for purely French posts. The number and quality of Russian teachers appear to have improved over the past few years. The great danger now seems to be a rapid expansion in the teaching of other foreign languages without a simultaneous expansion in the number of specialist teachers in training. A course which can be started by one teacher with, say, two forms in the first year at five periods each, can be taken by him up to the third year (at the price of a repetitious timetable), but two will be required for O-level and three for A and S. Will they be available in time if we all start new courses within the next few years? This is my fear for the Russian which we have just started in my own school. Already many of my grammar school colleagues, who have previously expected to have a fully graduate language staff, now look to the colleges of education for their junior French teachers because of the acute shortage, and in view of the university bottleneck we should be able to expect good quality teachers from this

source. I am impressed by the high standard of the language work at our local college of education.

ROWLANDS: An additional problem which was brought up at all our conferences was the question of Latin, which is still widely taught in the early years of secondary school. While I would feel that there is a strong case for a knowledge of Latin by those who intend subsequently to study languages at a high academic level, I would think that there was also a strong case to be made out for postponing its introduction until such pupils can be more clearly identified, and the subject can be taught more intensively to smaller and more highly motivated groups. Do you share this view?

ELLIS: I am convinced that I personally have a better feeling for sentence construction and vocabulary because I studied Latin up to degree level, but in all except the largest or most generously staffed schools there is not enough room on the timetable of the main school for four languages.

ROWLANDS: Summing up, do you feel that in the present circumstances any movement to develop the teaching of Spanish, German and Russian and to offer them widely in schools as an alternative to French, either as first or second foreign language, can succeed?

ELLIS: If it is to succeed, and I am sure that it has the sympathy of many Heads and modern linguists, it must be supported by a national campaign to produce more specialist teachers, to persuade more schools to provide alternative language courses so that pupils moving to another part of the country will not find themselves unable to continue, and to convince parents and LEAs of the value of learning these languages, because it will demand understanding, co-operation and hard cash.

*This article suggests ways of planning religious education in schools which contain Christian and non-Christian pupils.*

# More Paths Than One

ERIC LORD

There are two basic assumptions upon which this article rests and from which my arguments derive. The first assumption is that there exists a religious or spiritual dimension to life which defies total destruction but which relies nevertheless for full and healthy growth upon a progressive pattern of enlightened education. This progressive programme is planned, as in the intellectual sphere, to take account of recognisable developmental stages determined by both mental and emotional maturation. The second assumption, compatible with the present ecumenical climate, implies that there is acceptable religious diversity in the same way that there is acceptable racial difference.

It would appear from all the evidence that history has shown man, with persistent regularity, largely to have ignored what are to me these two undeniable truths. A shrinking world, greater individual mobility, an upsurge of national aggressiveness, the current widespread social revolution and the present disturbing repudiation of authority have all brought the need for an invariable morality and for tolerance rather than bigotry very close to each one of us, particularly if we happen to live in an expanding multi-racial community and are kept at a distance from life's real purposes by the soulless barriers of industrialisation, materialism, indulgence and greed.

My two assumptions then, that religion is significant and that the acceptance of religious diversity is both sensible and necessary, must be received by each one of my readers in accordance with his own individual beliefs and conscience. What cannot be disputed is that these two potentially inflammatory factors are still capable of adding to the total of human suffering if tolerance and understanding are replaced by bigotry and ignorance. Religion, as I use the word, is not to be equated with a dogmatic kind of organised communal belief too narrowly refined to suit temperament, time and place. It is rather to be thought of as an instinctive and universal striving for purpose and truth inherent in all men whatever their race or creed. If accepted in this way it should be seen that there is a real promise of religious co-operation in our increasingly plural society and this opportunity we cannot afford to ignore. Events in India, Northern Ireland and the Middle East are recent examples of either an inability or an unwillingness to acknowledge this basis for co-operation with calamitous results.

## Stages in Religious Education

To direct these thoughts more specifically towards children and education I would suggest that there is a three-tier pattern of development associated with spiritual growth, the triple stages of which may be described as the stage of religious awareness, the stage of religious

understanding and the stage of religious commitment. In the first stage the children should be encouraged and helped through their normal activities to appreciate the numinous, to catch their breath in wonder, to recognise and feel unselfishness, joy and sorrow, to admire beauty and order, and to develop a feeling for others through an enjoyment of the behaviour of others towards themselves; in short a genuine uncommitted religious experience which must by my definition be common to all religions at all levels; an experience which raises the commonplace to new levels. During this stage there need be no divisive factors whatever and the best elements of all faiths and cultures may be drawn upon to enrich the total sensual and spiritual experience of the group concerned. The caring adult in the persons of parent and teacher will be associated in the young child's mind with the father-figure of the faith, whichever one it may be. Fortunately the child's growing concept of God is common to all faiths and Jesus Christ, Moses, Muhammad, the Gurus and Krishna are figures of sufficient stature to be universally worthy of attention in one way or another without danger of any offence or misunderstanding. If the child were Christian, Jewish, Muslim, Hindu or Sikh I would imagine that the only barrier to him enjoying and benefiting from contact with these messengers of truth would be the difficulty of recognising the suitability of the material chosen in relation to his age and intelligence, his ability to understand it in terms of his current experience and the teacher's own skill in selection, interpretation and presentation. This stage of religious awareness must come first in the developmental process; it must be explored in some depth before stage two can be embarked upon unless the children concerned are being brought up within a strong worshipping community at home and in church, synagogue, mosque, temple or gurdwara when the two stages may perhaps run parallel with school and home both playing a part.

It is fortunate that this initial stage which allows, if appropriate, a totally multi-religious approach should extend over the entire period of early childhood thereby covering the whole of the infant phase.

The second stage of religious understanding built ideally upon a sure foundation of religious awareness would concern itself with providing opportunities for pupils to learn about organised religion, their own and that of their classroom companions who follow another faith. It has been my very pleasant experience to find amongst the influential leaders of all the major faiths a common desire for a truly ecumenical approach to spiritual development at this second stage. Their only concern would seem to be the very reasonable one that basic controversial issues might either be avoided or presented in such an understanding way that passions could not possibly be inflamed or susceptibilities offended. For instance, the Passion story could be told in innocence, and ignorance, as a possible invitation to anti-semitism or more thoughtfully and with full knowledge of all possible ambiguity as a statement of what actually occurred at that time with no offence given to our Jewish fellow-countrymen. The concern of teachers of religion under any circumstances should always be to avoid offending or decrying the beliefs and traditions of others and this means a positive effort on their part to understand, in sympathy, the backgrounds, traditions and religious motives of those whose lives touch closely upon the lives of the Christian pupils in their care with the expectation of equal sym-

pathy from the other direction for Christian belief and doctrine. This responsibility, I would suggest, rests equally heavily upon the teacher of history who may, for example, still look at the crusades from the point of view of a Christian in the twelfth century and teach it that way. Initial or in-service training for teachers of both religion and history should take account of this.

It is my firmly held opinion that those who live in this country, of indigenous origin or otherwise, should understand its Christian heritage and the influence of this heritage upon present culture and continuing tradition. This, therefore, gives pride of place to Christian education in British Schools but it should not be totally exclusive or aim at conversion.

At the second stage of religious understanding it is fortunate that the concepts of all the major religions which could be considered suitable for children in the junior school could certainly be presented in a non-controversial way, particularly as there is a definable common thread running through all of them and a convenient desire at this present time for co-operation in a spirit of sympathy and understanding. The exceptions to this would be the rigid fundamentalists of all faiths and just as there is no place in our perilous world today for the extreme nationalist so in religious education there is no place for the bigoted fundamentalist.

## Harmony and Diversity

It cannot be denied that Christianity has been a proselytising religion but the New Testament demands of Christians that their compassion should cross all barriers and asks them to recognise diversity for example in the interpretation of the meaning of the word 'neighbour'. Between Judaism, Christianity and the other major religious faiths I believe there is, today, in this country, a widespread desire for mutual understanding. The Ten Points of Seelisberg issued after the conference following World War II and the Vatican II declaration of 1962 are amongst recent statements aimed at preparing the ground for this essential co-partnership. 'To the modern Jew it is good that religions are plural, just as it is advantageous to the world that there are many persons and civilisations. Each faith he now likes to believe is stimulated by all the others and is spurred constantly by their criticism to self-purification. The Jew prefers not to put religions in contrast with one another. He is content that each has its share of verity and worth; that all have the right to be; that, out of their diversity, God, man and the truth are better served in the long run. As for himself, he is at peace in Judaism'—this quotation I take from the late Rabbi Milton Steinberg of New York who expressed so well the tolerant viewpoint with its obvious implications for education. Islam, also, through the inspired words of the *Qur'an*, is clear in its attitude to the 'people of the book' that is towards Jews and Christians—'O people of the scriptures, come to an agreement between us and you: That we shall worship none but God, and that we shall ascribe no partner unto him, and that none of us shall take others for lords besides God.' The enlightened Muslim of today is as aware of the need to tear down the barriers of ignorance and prejudice, wherever they may be found as the informed of any other faith. When the Guru Nanak founded Sikhism 500 years ago he founded it upon the fundamental principles common to all religions; he likened different religions to different languages which all say the same thing

but in diverse ways. Modern Sikhism follows this laudable ideal and is completely free from all narrow sectarianism, dogma and prejudice. Finally, the basic philosophy of Hinduism has as its keynote the theme that there is an essential totality which concerns all religions, recognising them all as so many paths to the same truth. It accepts all the great prophets and teachers as manifestations of the one supreme Godhead. In Hinduism there has always been considerable tolerance of other opinions and a much closer affinity with the concept of monotheism than is usually imagined.

From these all too brief indications of the basic indivisiveness of the major faiths each with its own obvious mandate to show goodwill and benevolence it is clear that the ecumenism of the latter half of the twentieth century opens up enormous opportunities in religious education which can only be lost if local ignorance should prevail or if the problems are taken as stumbling blocks rather than as exciting challenges. If these challenges are accepted the way is open for a much richer approach than we have ever had to spiritual development in schools during the junior stage of religious understanding when pupils would be encouraged to learn about, and understand at their own level, something of each other's religious beliefs and worshipping practices using the thematic approach and employing the useful technique of 'looking over each other's shoulders' in any multi-racial groups.

The final stage in this developmental plan is the one which I call the stage of religious commitment. This, of course, would be outside the responsibility of the normal county school system. It could march parallel with the other two stages in the case of a pupil who has strong attachments to any particular worshipping institution or community and attends a voluntary school. In this case, however, the commitment at this early stage is likely to be made more through the emotions than the intellect with the possibility of a later lack of depth. For pupils, however, who have not these attachments this stage will never be reached whilst at school, nor would one wish it to be.

## An Educational Programme

The aim of religious education in county schools should be to develop religious awareness and promote understanding as widely as possible before there is any suggestion of encouraging a pupil to commit himself to the creed of any sect or denomination. For the majority of pupils it will be sufficient, during their school careers, to concentrate upon stages one and two leaving stage three to those agencies which meet the young adult in his own particular environment outside school. Religious education in county schools does not set out to achieve commitment but religious awareness with the bonus of broad understanding for as many as possible. After, or during, the period devoted to learning about the several religions appropriate to the group, it would be necessary to provide the opportunity for each pupil to study at greater depth his own particular religion, so that a more detailed study of Christianity would be available for the Christian pupil, of Islam for the Muslim pupil and so on.

There would seem to be no reason why this deeper and more personal aspect of the work should not be done on the school premises by visiting instructors if teachers were not available as ordinary members of staff. This more particular instruction which in some cases might

simply be catechetical in nature would be particularly relevant during this second stage with older junior pupils from about the age of nine or ten years; it would only take place for a small fraction of the total time devoted to religious studies. The programme of work therefore for the junior pupil would ideally include some time devoted to an open-ended study of religion in the broad sense and a smaller amount of time given in the later stages to the special study of his own particular religion. If visiting instructors were to be considered I am assured that the several divisions of each major faith could agree on a common basic creed for use in schools; for example, just as Roman Catholics, Anglicans and Freechurchmen now accept Christian teaching in our county schools from one or other of the newer agreed syllabuses so, I am told, the Sunnis and the Shias would accept an 'agreed' syllabus of Islam for this particular purpose and the same may be said of all the 'liberal' sects in Judaism, Hinduism and Sikhism. This being so, the maximum number of special classes apart from those in Christianity in any one school would not exceed four in the most unlikely heterogeneous situation.

This opportunity to pursue in school the study of one's own national religion as well as the broader study of relevant world faiths would seem to me to remove the cause for two strong apprehensions which all devout people must share whatever their belief. The first is the disquiet which is felt when a child or young person is subjected to the strains and insecurity which must ensue when he is torn between two religious traditions with little hint to him from either side that the one is acceptable to the other or that the one aims to sympathise with, and understand, the other; this situation is even more distressing when the hereditary religion is so much part of a way of life as it is in the case of the orthodox Jew, the Muslim, the Hindu and the Sikh. In short it is undesirable that a child should be totally Muslim at home and totally Christian at school. Secondly, if we do believe that a religious dimension in life is innate and indestructible then we must also believe that a denial of religious experience will create a void which must be filled with something else and contemporary experience does not give us much confidence to believe that this something will always be desirable. For the lapsed, apathetic Christian or the young person seeking, without guidelines, the true meaning of life, there are easier things to be hooked on than Islam. Similarly with the indifferent Muslim or Hindu teenager there should be no fear that the void will be filled with Christian enthusiasm even though he may have been exposed to religious education with a distinctive Christian flavour in school. In fact there is no indication of alarm from any quarter that conversions would be considerable should religious education in schools be multi—rather than uni-religious.

The precedent for special instruction in a faith other than Christianity in a school with a majority, or sizeable minority, of pupils following that faith was established some 70 years ago when the London County Council issued an alternative syllabus for the religious instruction of Jewish pupils.

It has long been recognised that all the major faiths have an invariable and similar moral standard which has survived the passage of time and this derives from respect for oneself and love and respect for one's neighbour. It is good from time to time for young and old alike to

measure their own personal standards against these constants. Contemporary morality cannot be the measure because it is so distressingly variable and therefore no substitute for the invariable concept of God and goodness as defined by any major religious group. Where integrated work takes place in schools withdrawal from religious education can cause disruption. If it could ever be possible for minority groups to have the right of entry to schools for the occasional purpose of giving religious instruction in the minority faith, might it not also be possible for the school to look upon this as a welcome bonus rather than a troublesome imposition? For instance, if a study of world faiths took place in the sixth form, this would not only be a sympathetic move towards the immigrant minority but also a good move towards strengthening the sixth form general course. At this stage not only would the student make a broad study of world faiths but he would be in a position to choose one for study in depth.

## Unity in Diversity

There would seem to be no difficulty whatever in all pupils sharing each other's happiness in the enjoyment of the great religious festivals of the world. In this case, as in the case of worship generally, there is no great virtue in sharing an experience which does not demonstrate the best that each religion can produce; a pot-pourri of snippets from all religions in one service would certainly not achieve the designed end. In British schools, worship would primarily be Christian with strong ecumenical reference, but reasonable opportunity should be given for the pupils of other faiths to show the Christian members of the school their pattern of worship and for them to invite all present to share the enjoyment of this.

Throughout this article the emphasis has been upon sympathy and understanding and in a potentially explosive area of activity, such as religious belief and practice. Linked as it is with nationality and race, ignorance and misunderstanding must be removed because these attitudes in their turn lead to suspicion, hatred and recrimination. There are, of course, undoubted difficulties associated with achieving this understanding and tolerance and I have said nothing to suggest how the teachers might be prepared for this task or how accommodation, books and equipment could be produced. But no progress will be made at all unless basic aims are outlined and discussed.

If we look upon religious education in a total sense, then any part of it which can be seen to be energetic and alive can only add vigour to the whole; in other words, the successful nurture of active minority faiths, as they exist in our midst, must be beneficial to religious education generally with consequent benefits to Christianity.

In 1944 the problem in this country was to bridge the gulf between the several denominations of the Christian faith, but the main problem in the 1970s is to extend to the major religions this attitude of growing together. As the Rev. Keith Cripps wrote in 'Towards a World Faith' (*Learning for Living*), January 1969, 'In a world of different nations and races, for whose survival unity has become imperative, may it not be asked of our religions that they should unite, and not divide, mankind? Should not this be within the aims of religious education?'

*The author of this article looks at the concept of community development and its implications for various sectors of the education service.*

# Education and Community Development

J. A. SIMPSON

The term community development is increasingly encountered in educational circles as the description of a concept, still in process of evolution and embracing a number of distinct ideas. They are concerned with improving the social environment as it is experienced by people who can, in respect of this experience, be regarded as a community. The social environment is seen not merely as a matter of physical circumstances and amenities, but also as those patterns of daily life and movement, and prevalent social attitudes which can effect the opportunities that people find for expressive and recreative personal life and group relationships.

By definition community development deals with communities where the social environment is in need of development. The number of such communities is probably limitless in this imperfect world. However, it needs no lengthy research to establish the existence of more than enough where the need for development is outstandingly apparent. Such communities tend to be confined to well marked geographical areas. Again, the common experience of dire social deficiency among people living close together makes for a transition from objective to subjective community—one of the features of community development. For these reasons it has come to be primarily associated with communities in spectacularly deprived or disadvantaged areas or in the circumstances of potential deprivation that occur in new towns or housing estates. The people concerned mostly occupy the lower rungs of the socio-economic scale. Community development is not, however, a charitable or 'rescue' movement, nor is it a refurbished form of voluntary social work. Its ideas and ethic are relevant to communities of all social classes.

The term community development, then, describes aspirations and planned efforts towards the establishment of productive relationship between three forces, each of which has grown in strength in the past decade:

> *First*, the outreach of government, through the integrated planning of certain of its departments, to improve the social environment, and to stimulate, encourage and co-operate with the efforts to this end of people themselves in their various communities:
>
> *Second*, the work of voluntary associations and individual employees of both statutory and non-governmental agencies to urge and help people to avail themselves fully of their social

environment and of the legal means of improving it, and to participate, as communities, in developing it to meet their needs:

*Third*, the spontaneous expression by people themselves of a sense of community with others in action or intention to improve the social environment.

It must be noted that some exponents of community development would deny its true existence unless it originates in the third of these forces. There can, however, be no doubt that in practice the initiative has usually come from governments or professional workers, and that, over the world as a whole, it is the governmental contribution which predominates.

Community development is of course favoured by proposals, such as those in the Seebohm report, for co-ordinating certain government departments and this has been welcomed by many workers—teachers, health workers, housing officials, probation officers—who deplore overlap or isolation in what should be their joint efforts.

Authorities or groups of authorities can, of course, make *ad hoc* arrangements for close liaison and joint work among local and central government employees for the development of particular communities, and qualified experts can be consulted or employed.

The desirable administrative contribution to community development could be summarised as follows:—

(*a*) First and foremost, an acknowledged attitude to community development on the part of the authority and its committees and officials—an active wish to redress imbalance in the social environment as between communities in its area of competence, and to see them all develop further; a readiness to welcome the emergence of conscious communities and to co-operate with them; a general effort to further the ideals and methods of Community Development, for example, by publicity and through the curriculum of schools and colleges.

(*b*) Identification of specific community development tasks.

(*c*) Establishment of an agency or procedures for focussing on these tasks the co-ordinated work of relevant departments.

(*d*) Arrangements to ensure the maximum effectiveness of workers and buildings by schemes of joint training and usage.

(*e*) The encouragement of existing and emergent communities to participate in developing their environment.

(*f*) Co-operation with independent bodies or individuals that have a contribution to make.

It has long been among the aims of many workers for voluntary organisations and of health visitors, teachers, group therapy workers, principals of adult education centres, etc., to encourage people to avail themselves of all features of their social environment—social, cultural, legal, recreative and welfare. Work to this end is an esteemed part of the curriculum of many schools and colleges and of the activities of voluntary bodies such as the Councils of Social Service.

Community development would go further than this and, along lines traced in the 1944 'Red Book' on Community Centres, encourage

people to exercise and enjoy the rights and benefits available to them when they form a community. It is a measure of the value placed upon the existence of such communities within the state that, as members, people have entitlements (for example under the Physical Training and Recreation Act) which are not open to them as individual citizens.

In this connection one must note that community development is founded on a certain ethic. While this is associated with words that have become currently fashionable, such as 'involvement', 'commitment', 'participation' and 'appropriation', it has a long and honourable ancestry which includes the ideals of Athenian democracy and much in Christian teaching. One of its tenets is that people have not reached their best unless, as members of communities, they exercise some measure of control over their social environment; and that as mere passive recipients of social ills and benefits, they are belittled and frustrated. Allied to this is the basic idea that to wish for the well-being of others is normally a strong human impulse, neglect or starvation of which brings personal dissatisfaction and tension, and is morally reprehensible as less than human. Community development is not undertaken merely because it is a technique but it is itself a moral goal.

Unfortunately, there are areas where many people lack the ability to give expression to any sense of community, let alone to take participant action. They are held fast by a web of disadvantages which they can scarcely discern. Outside educative help is essential. Yet there is considerable suspicion of all that is commonly understood by 'education'. It is associated with teachers, and workers for the other social services, who constitute a 'they' who, for all their kindness and cleverness, 'do not understand', 'have never had to face' real circumstances in these milieux. For these reasons community development workers have evolved distinctive methods designed to induce people to try and understand the nature of their situation and to take appropriate action, but, at the same time, methods which do not savour of anything authoritative or didactic or of a revival of pastoral direction by 'gentlefolk'. This methodology owes much to experience gained by workers in underdeveloped countries where it has been noted that educative help is most acceptable when it enables people to recognise their specific community of needs, and helps them to take action accordingly. It is help which comes, not as from teachers or leaders with a ready-made syllabus or programme, but as from experienced fellow-men whose first task is to facilitate the formation of groups where, informally, people themselves may gradually identify their own problems.

A community development project must at some stage involve the participation of the people themselves. A volume recording community self-help would be at least as impressive as Samuel Smiles's tribute to nineteenth century individualism. The most recent success story would be that of the play groups which have come spontaneously into being all over the country. Rather earlier was the growth of consumer associations. Not all such spontaneous manifestations of community wishes are so successful or even welcome. Some have expended themselves in disorderly protest. In spite of this, the traditional societal attitude of approval for community initiative persists. It finds formal expression in Ministry of Education pamphlets and in the support given by the DES to adult and youth clubs and national and local associations of many kinds. To join existing associations is as much a

way into community as the formation of new ones, and is a contribution to it that people make for themselves.

The concept of 'belonging' is a basic idea in community development, one of its aims being that people should feel at home in their normal social environment, should have 'appropriated' it, made it their own—not feel isolated and anomalous—not be confined to their own small family and dwelling as if these formed the one oasis of real human relationship in a desert of impersonality and anonymity. This objective of community development becomes more important as geographical and social mobility among the population increases and takes more and more people into unfamiliar places or socio-economic strata.

## Educational Implications

The implications of community development for those in education—administrators, the directors and staffs of schools and colleges, and of youth work and adult education—are of course too many to trace in detail. All the research on environmental factors affecting ability suggests that in disadvantaged areas only an ameliorative action upon the whole community can make the most, educationally, of its children. Certain colleges of education have experimented with the training of teacher-social workers, and there can be no doubt that a great deal of school-based community development has been undertaken and awaits documentation. A somewhat different approach can be noted in the type of provision made in rural areas by village and community colleges.

The connection between education and community development can be clearly found in certain areas of work subtended by the Ministry and Department ever since the 1944 Act—community centres and village halls, adult education and youth service. Not all community associations and village hall communities have manifested a marked concern for the quality of life in their communities, but a catalogue of those which have done so would be a lengthy affair. Some, of course, originated in popular action, as at West Denton in Newcastle or at Bedwell, in Stevenage New Town, where the initiative came from the new residents themselves, getting together in one of their houses. Headcorn in Kent and Borough Green in Sussex exemplify places where people have become involved in forms of community development centred on village halls. Not only is there active care for sick and aged and the provision of Citizens Advice Bureaux but amenities like playing fields have been secured. These committees also work towards the formation of clubs for music, drama and the arts.

In adult education the ideals of community development have been implicit from the outset of the university extension movement and of the WEA. It was strongly motivated by the intention to remove inequalities in ability to make use of the social environment, enabling people who had not had the benefit of extended education to obtain the cultural and personal development which accrues from academic study and to participate on a more equal footing in general social life, politics and industrial management.

The force of all this tended to grow weaker with the opening up of secondary, university and vocational education after the war. People began to come to adult education more in search of understanding, creativity, enjoyment and self development—and also of congenial

group-experience—particularly through the practical skills taught in LEA institutes. The number of students now approaches two million a year, but some adult educationists regret that increasingly their work lies with educated and socially competent people. Contact is being lost with the educationally disadvantaged, and the sense of mission is diminishing.

In the last few years a number of adult educationists have found in community development a guide-line for much of their work, and a way whereby it can regain the impetus of idealism and the ballast of the thought of unsophisticated people with a wisdom derived only from experience.

Such an adult educationist identifies the disadvantaged communities in the area he serves and sets himself the task of helping the people there to repair the deficiencies. Thus, the principal of an institute may put on a class for foreign workers, making it as attractive as possible in time and place. Or, as at an institute in London, the principal and staff may seek to identify themselves with a run-down neighbourhood, helping individuals, groups and societies to a realisation of their efforts. Or the tutor of an extra-mural department or the WEA may induce people in an area to undertake a study or survey of their own community and its problems and needs. Whatever kind of class it is the teacher or tutor tends to let the wishes of the people themselves, as they progressively emerge, be the decisive voice in the content and method of work. And indeed, for people in the type of community which calls most for development the only viable 'syllabus' is likely to be concerned with the students' own immediate problems as revealed by themselves in discussion.

Indeed adult education seems to have an inseparable connection with community development, in so far as, through it, people are enabled to use more fully their own resources of hand, eye and mind and are liberated from complete dependence upon commercially or publicly provided goods, facilities, behaviour-patterns and ideas. And adult education is one, if not the largest and most readily available, means whereby adults may enter into satisfying social groups—unique in the extent to which they mix members of a community from widely differing social classes, united in a common interest in their subject.

Youth work has always included some of the essential features of community development. From the beginning of the century it placed emphasis upon helping groups of young people to become more precisely aware of their leisure needs, and to acquire and adapt their own premises and run their own affairs with an eye to the needs of others in their neighbourhood. The idea of concern for the community as a whole is no new thing and has had expression from the Scouts' 'good turn' to the social service aspect of the Duke of Edinburgh's Award.

It would, however, be misleading to suggest that activities along these lines formed more than a part of the youth scene. The larger part has been made up of recreative leisure pursuits and sociability. Indeed for a time, particularly when, immediately after the Albemarle report, there was a generous provision of purpose-built clubs, centres, wings and leisure facilities, the features of youth work which are akin to community development tended to be overshadowed.

Youth workers, however, are not content to see their role as that of technicians of recreation but insist that it is essentially educative, and in the last five years there has been renewed stress on the educative value of constructive action to improve area amenities, of participation in planning development, of self-government and of aid and service to those in need. As the full implications of community development are of relevance only to adult citizens it has naturally been, hitherto, service to the community which has received most attention in youth work, and there have been a large number of movements and projects under the general heading of community service or voluntary service.

There are, however, some examples of action by youth groups which go, along community development lines, beyond service. The Young Christian Workers—a movement of which the upper age limit is 25, and which is controlled democratically by its members—have on several occasions undertaken surveys of the life and amenities of a community and produced reports leading to discussion of ways towards amelioration. Older young people—a group of graduate employees of ICI—also formed the East Ravens Trust which set itself the task of improving the pattern of life in a very poor district of Stockton by getting groups of people together. In Brixton, youth groups are deeply involved in the community relations development project—designed to assist the development of communities with a high proportion of immigrants. It has the service of two professional workers and is co-ordinated by committees widely representative of the residents.

In these last few years the term community development has come to be more familiar in youth service circles. A growing interest in its ideology and methods is reflected in much of the training of youth workers—it is significant that the term 'leader' has fallen out of use to a large extent.

The culmination of this growing interest is to be found in the recently published Report of the Youth Service Development Council *Youth and Community work in the '70s* (HMSO), which uses the term 'community development' and recommends that youth work should be in large measure education for social commitment and participation in the constant development of 'the active society'.

## Critics and Enthusiasts

No-one can undertake a serious examination of community development without being made aware that there are responsible people who, while not questioning the major ethical propositions which it entails, express reservations about it as a strategy. Response to a set of ideas is seldom a matter of purely intellectual processes but is influenced by temperament, situation and experience. In these respects it is noticeable that informed critics of community development tend to manifest a certain syndrome. They are usually individualists, high achievers, cultivated in the elite sense of the term, or dedicated to a faith in non-societal values. They tend to be dubious about human progress and to lament the disappearance of features of the past. They have little confidence in the ability of most people to know or get what they want without leadership, and are critical of many ersatz satisfactions which the majority pursue.

The most common charge made against community development is

that, in stating that people are not at their best unless they participate in communities, it elevates certain human types which the critics find unsympathetic, and recommends them as patterns which all should copy; and that it makes a moral obligation of a way of life in which privacy is curtailed and where people have to undertake the dutiful kind of sociability to be had in Orwell's community centres of 1984, or church attendance in the Victorian high noon. For its critics, community development envisages a world in which nothing is sacred from the eager acolytes of professional 'workers', products of the flood of graduates for whom opportunities as colonialists no longer exist—people to whom individual difference and social variety seem intolerably untidy, and who itch to rationalise that spontaneous, personal, unorganised quotidianity which is the *raison d'etre* and supreme reward of all other activities. The constant cultivation of the expression of community wishes would intensify the vulgarisation of taste and standards which is already marked as a result of admass audience and consumer research, so that only the demotic style would be available, except to the very rich. Moreover, a tradition of approval and encouragement would be built up for manifestations of localised popular demand and for disorderly pressures upon duly constituted democratic government. Community development as an educational policy would conflict with innate individualism and the stubborn facts of social class.

A sympathetic reply to these criticisms would, perhaps, make the point that they arise from groundless fears. The good environment envisaged by community development includes, in the first rank, space and respect for privacy and withdrawal. Participation in community, while essential for the good life, is seen as only a part of it, and, like a vitamin, not the whole diet but something which can be taken according to taste. Nor is there any suggestion that community involvement necessarily represents a person's highest form of expression. Taking part in a meeting and reading Verlaine in solitude are activities to which the same person can well devote time. Their relative value remains a matter for individual belief.

The configuration of attitudes which usually underlies hostility to community development is emotionally and intellectually self-frustrating. It denies man's innate gregariousness and altruism, and it can be logically stated only if one is prepared to adopt premises as difficult as those of apartheid. By contrast, community development is based on people's natural impulses of fellowship and kindliness, and on their inability to rest content with a theory or state of affairs whereby some must be deemed to be permanently less capable of human activities than others. Rejection of the ideals of community development is just as frustrating on the plane of practical life, and it condemns the critic to a futile opposition to invincibly strong forces. Because of their incoherence and misuse these forces can indeed lead to an inescapable prevalence of primitive forms of mass expression and satisfaction, from which it will be less and less possible to maintain a refuge. Such a trend will be reinforced by the sheer pressure of increasing population, by the equalisation of income, and the market dominance of mass tastes with their obtrusive invasion of all localities and spheres. Community development is open-eyed to these facts, sees them as inevitable concomitants of freedom, yet seeks to encourage people to

alter the direction of the social forces, of which they are particles, for good. It is not by postures of elegant abnegation and despair that good standards may be rescued and the climate of social opinion kept favourable for individual or minority tastes and liberties.

Community development is not concerned to conflict with social class. In fact, in so far as this is based on genuine differences of personality and idiom, and not on differences of opportunity, community development tends to strengthen it by revitalising a multiplicity of communities each based on identity of interests and tastes, and each respecting the others. But community development is remedial of those divisive features of social class which Disraeli described as producing two nations.

Naturally community development makes an appeal to the new generations of graduates, many of whom have had close contact with life in disadvantaged areas, and it is surely to the good that they find a social objective which gives purpose to their academic studies. Many of them, engaged as teachers of one kind or another, see in community development a remedy to the appalling wastefulness of education in the schools and colleges and youth facilities and adult institutes of many areas where their work is largely ineffectual because it runs counter to the values and life-patterns which prevail there.

Disorderly protests are features of the present scene, and result from the lack of any acceptable patterns for effective participation. An even more serious result is the apathy or cynicism about democratic political forms which results from people's sense of impotence to take any useful step to influence decisions which affect their lives vitally but which evade the large-scale network of political control. Democracy, unless it is supplemented by community development, can, in industrialised, densely populated societies, seem no more than a device for conveying the illusion of freedom. It is certainly an indication of some deficiency that the post-war states of Western Europe which have been explicitly devoted, as perhaps never before in history, to the welfare of their peoples, have been rewarded by singularly little affection and enthusiasms from those peoples.

# TALKING POINTS

**By Question Master**

## Ancillary or Auxiliary?

The Plowden report advocated (paras 922 ff) an extended use of ancillary helpers in primary schools. In January 1967 the teacher and local authority associations issued a joint statement encouraging authorities to examine their arrangements for the employment of ancillary helpers in order that qualified teaching staff should be able to conserve their energies and time for those duties which they alone could undertake. Financial stringency has imposed a brake on developments in this field but there are signs that ancillary helpers are becoming an accepted part of primary school provision in most places, but what determines the ancillaries role?

It is common ground that he or, usually, she should act under the direction of the teacher. The question is whether she should, under that direction, be restricted to a range of relatively humble tasks of a child-minding but non-teaching nature or whether she would be concerned to turn her hand to anything which needs doing and is within her competence, experience and qualifications. The former would by common consent include the tying of shoelaces, escort to toilet or clinic, preparation and cleaning of apparatus. The latter could include venturing, again under direction, into helping pupils with such activities as number, art and craft, drama, or model-making. Those who think that there should be some restriction of role argue for some national definition of the duties of a (non-teaching) ancillary, whom they then need to distinguish from the 'teaching auxiliary' (the Americanism 'aide' seems to be used to cover the whole possible range of helpers in schools who are in normal contact with the pupils.) The Plowden report said 'young children working as individuals or in small groups need encouragement and help in their play, their reading and other activities' and implied that some of this help should be given by aides. But the press has reported that, in Nottinghamshire, for example, teachers were asked by their association to stop using helpful parents in classrooms, and a spokesman is quoted as saying: 'We have been given examples of parents listening to the reading of children. The original idea was just to allow parents to come in and listen to the lessons to see what their children are doing. A parent may hear a child read a word incorrectly and correct the fault. Thus their role changes from one of listening to correcting and this could escalate.'

Should an unqualified person be debarred from any activity in school that might be defined as teaching? That is the question.

At the practical level someone who was not a qualified teacher might, when listening to a child reading, be tempted to correct him in a way which, because of her ignorance of how he had been taught, might confuse him more. She might weaken the child's confidence by correcting him too often or, through ignorance of relative standards, try to insist on a speed or quality of reading which a child of that age could not normally achieve. It is interesting to note in passing the widespread complaint among teachers that teachers emerge from colleges of education badly equipped themselves for the teaching of reading.

There may be fears too that the extended use of aides might be the thin end of a wedge. Unqualified teachers are now being phased out so why re-introduce them in another guise? Is there a danger that the employment of auxiliaries might be promoted as a cheaper alternative to training and recruiting more teachers?

On the other side it is argued that the objectors are misjudging both teachers'

own interests and those of the children. A competent teacher can easily ensure that an auxiliary does not confuse or discourage the children. A child can gain tremendous encouragement simply by the presence of a grown-up who is prepared to listen to him or look at his work. The power to delegate some duties to subordinate staff usually enhances rather than detracts from the prestige of a profession; doctors and dentists rely heavily on nurses and other sub-professional workers. There is probably no single example of a profession which has suffered by delegating work. Public respect for the teaching profession would be enhanced rather than the reverse by the knowledge that they supervised sub-professionals, and the prestige of the profession is if anything diminished when people suggest that they are not competent to do so.

On the ground, rumour suggests that many heads and teachers have used ancillaries—with discretion but with great and acknowledged benefit—as auxiliaries, without of course any implication that they have the same status as teachers or could take over the teacher's role.

The real safeguard is that the auxiliary always acts under the direction of the teacher. Finally, most people would say that we are some years away from having enough teachers even to think of replacing —as opposed to supporting—them with auxiliaries.

Surely so the argument would run, the aide's role should vary according to the pattern of school organisation, the type and extent of training she has received, and the experience of the teachers with whom she works?

Surely judgement about what subordinates are capable of doing in such-and-such circumstances are of a kind which people in other professions are expected to take daily, and which qualified teachers also are competent to take.

The future need is perhaps for a well-planned system of recruitment and training for aides of all kinds? They would not have the same status as teachers nor assume the teachers' role, but they would possess varied talents of which primary teachers should be able to make good use.

## Using *ita*

It is 10 years since the Initial Teaching Alphabet was first introduced into English schools as a controlled experiment. There are now about 3,000 schools using it—one sixth of the total number of infant schools and infant departments. It is important, and not always realised, that this alphabet can be used irrespective of the *method* employed to teach reading. It was designed to grade the difficulties of the English writing system and thus to embody simplifications and regularities that would ease the arduous process of learning to read. Always to be borne in mind was the problem of a smooth transfer to the orthodox system once fluency in *ita* had been obtained.

There has been much research into the effectiveness of *ita*, but the difficulty of separating the factors which directly affect children's success in learning to read cannot yet be said to have been overcome. We do not really know whether children learn in a sequential pattern or by some process more like a succession of hops and jumps. The effects of variations in media, materials and methods have not been adequately assessed as yet. The child's attitude to reading (and writing) after the initial skills have been mastered—the supremely important factor—remains a very open question.

The balance of research evidence seems to suggest that *ita* is more effective for bright than for dull children. Nevertheless there were cases (one in a school for the educationally sub-normal) where *ita* was effectively used with less able children. Always there are factors such as parental influences, the teacher's experience and training, the basic ethos of the school in which experiments take place which tend to produce conflicting evidence. Thus the endeavours of the research workers to control the variables are often frustrated.

There is widespread feeling that further research is needed, and that without it a general recommendation that teachers should use *ita* in the teaching of reading is unwarranted. The teacher's freedom to introduce the young children in her care to those activities and experiences that will induce them to regard reading as the way into a more exciting, richer world

seems to be the factor to be safeguarded at all costs. A particular teacher may be attracted to *ita* and may achieve a success with it due more to the teacher's enthusiasm than to anything intrinsically significant in the approach itself. Such enthusiasm may be produced by the teacher's attendance at a course on *ita*. But often the effect of these courses may be simply to show the significance of any structured approach to reading and therefore to offset earlier neglect of method study.

Doubts and anxieties about *ita* seem to centre round the point of entry and the point of departure—that is to say the initiation of the teaching and the transition from *ita* to traditional orthography. Many schools seem to make an earlier start to the teaching of reading when they use *ita*. Would this be satisfactory with children whose language is very limited? Research has shown that progress from recognition of single words to meaningful reading depends much on the linguistic experience of the child.

More time both in preparation of materials and in school hours tends to be given to reading, perhaps to the detriment of other aspects of the curriculum. Does *ita* lead to a narrower reading scheme and less varied a choice of books? Does it affect standards of calligraphy adversely as the symbols of the *ita* have at present to be drawn and a natural rhythmic flow is inhibited? The evidence seems to support the view that spelling ability came more easily in *ita* but that this becomes one of the problems at the stage of transition.

Teachers are naturally anxious about children who are still using *ita* when they move or are passed on to another school. On the other hand too early a transfer may create problems. The timing and method of transfer are clearly factors of the utmost importance. The authors of the Schools Council's evaluation study, Professor Warburton and Mrs. Southgate, have this to say on that point, "no doubt wide levels will be permissible in different circumstances but teachers who transfer children outside experimentally defined limits will be . . . handicapping the pupils unnecessarily."

We invite comments from teachers experienced in the use of *ita*.

## TREND-SETTER

### Parents and a Day ESN School

*Co-operation between a school and the parents of its children is always important but in a day school for educationally subnormal children it is particularly vital and it may be unusually difficult to achieve. Miss D. C. Flew, the headmistress of such a school, contributes an account of her successful efforts to surmount the difficulties.*

The school of which I write is situated in a mining area drawing from a thickly populated region; the majority of parents are involved in coal mining or industry, and most of the mothers are at work at some part of the day. The physical features of the area present problems because the catchment area surrounds a town which is its own Authority; children are therefore brought in by the LEA transport from a wide district entirely surrounding the town, but the general public almost always go into the town and come across it in order to reach the school.

The school opened in April, 1965, and has a total roll of 100 boys and girls from seven to sixteen years old. As one would expect, there are a number of parents who have always shown interest in the work and who are ready to attend meetings or co-operate in any way when asked. The number of such parents is limited and in spite of the years of growth which have passed, it has not increased. The majority of the parents will come when sent for or if an open day is announced to which they can bring all the family; some (those invariably most wanted) never appear at all. It seemed that this was to be expected and other headteachers pointed out when the matter was discussed that our families were probably the most deprived, the most illiterate, and the most feckless of any in this part of the country. Certainly this is

borne out when one realises that a quarter of the children are having free meals and in many cases additional help with clothing.

In my view, the parents are an integral part of any programme designed to educate children. I could not, therefore, accept the suggestion that it would be better to carry on with school life and disregard the home; if the children were to develop and mature we needed the help of their parents—more, I believe, than in a school for normally endowed children. In order to discover when the parents could best come to school I started by sending a letter with an attached reply slip, asking whether the preference was for day or evening. The result was disappointing: a great many of the slips were not returned and those which were, divided equally and indicated little hope of attracting sufficient numbers for interesting meetings or social contacts. We made use of the open day and did not attempt to hold meetings in any other way. As these events were necessarily held with the children at school at the same time, they were noisy, excited, friendly occasions; they showed us quite a lot about the type of parent, but we made little progress in active co-operation. It was a start—but no more—and how did one progress?

## Group Meetings

The next step I took after some consideration: I invited the parents of a whole group or class to spend an afternoon in the classroom. This meant that parents were given the opportunity of meeting others whose children were friendly with their own; they were able to discuss problems with the class teacher and myself. During the afternoon, tea would be served in the classroom by some of the children, work and aims could be discussed, and the group was generally of a size which encouraged the flow of conversation. There was, and is I am sure, much to be said for this type of meeting having a definite place in the school; shift work locally meant that fathers as well as mothers might come, and people in small groups are less likely to remain shy and aloof. Yet it seemed to leave gaps which ought to be filled: a certain number of parents failed to respond and with increasing interest from some, it was obvious that those children whose parents were indifferent were suffering. Some children would appear bright and eager with the certainty that this time mum or dad would come—and always the same dull and anxious faces resulted from those absent parents. There was a feeling of cohesion in class groupings but not a sense of belonging to the parents' group of a school with its implication of responsibilities.

By the summer of 1969, I realised that by failing to attract the active co-operation of all the parents, we were failing to do all that we could for their children. I decided on a completely different approach, only made possible because of having by this time, a nucleus of parents upon whom I could rely. I wrote to ten homes explaining that I needed their help in order to do more for the children, and asked if they would be interested in working with me by giving up some time to meet me at school. The answers were all positive and at the beginning of the autumn term, a small meeting was held. At this stage, I felt that they should not have to face a number of the staff, because one of the characteristics of these parents is their lack of self-confidence in the face of what they regard as 'authority'. My deputy came, wholeheartedly supporting my idea, and the housecraft teacher had asked if she might join in by making tea for us, but in fact being equally enthusiastic.

I talked to the parents explaining how vital a part they had to play and how highly we regarded what they did at home; I also explained that among the shyer and perhaps less able parents, there was a barrier between school and them, possibly because this was a reminder of scenes of failure and frustration in which teachers were known to be critics, not friends. I asked whether they would be prepared to bridge this gap by going out as parents having similar problems in having a handicapped child, and by genuine friendship and concern would encourage these parents to accept us and work with us. I was astonished at the warmth of the instant

response. They were most appreciative and practical. Two channels of thought swiftly became apparent: the need for human contact and help, and their need for concrete purpose which translated itself into plans to raise money for the school.

The development was steady and gained strength as the weeks passed. Two groups have been formed; one which takes on visiting parents and encouraging them to think of us as friends, which organises transport or help in getting to school, helps in difficulties, illness, and in all sorts of ways where professional aid is not necessary. The other group deals with activities, both social and fund raising, and naturally for a great deal of the time the two groups work together.

Since the beginning we have met every fortnight, and considering the short space of time, the results are remarkable. A bonfire night event was well attended and made a satisfactory profit; a social evening run jointly by parents, staff and children was held, and a good response was noticeable. More important, I believe, is the effect upon the children of the closer contact with home; I am bombarded with questions, messages and visits, and these all improve the relationship with the children upon which their work is built.

In a surprisingly short space of time this project has snow-balled so that I am rapidly beginning to feel that I have acquired a hundred new friends! The need for this type of contact can be judged by the eagerness of the response. Where future events will lead we cannot tell, but it seems fairly certain that the parents as a group will become stronger and that further opportunities for growth will arise. Already there has been talk of how they might help to provide for those who have left school—clubs, and an appropriate form of evening class have been suggested. The way things go no doubt depends upon many factors. There is a need for guidance which never loses sight of the main aim: to provide the best possible climate for the education and development of the children so that they can take their rightful place in the adult world.

BOOKS 1870 → 1970

## The Silent Social Revolution

G. A. N. Lowndes
*O.U.P. 30s.*

The publishers are to be congratulated on re-issuing this book thirty-two years after its first publication. It is a history of public education which now carries forward the story from 1935 to 1965 in a third section equal in length to the original book. Nothing with the same special qualities exists and all students of education should have access to it.

The author possesses the attributes of a scholar, the experience of many years as an educational administrator, the capacity to think in terms of individual children and their needs, plus a sense of humour.

Mr. Lowndes conceived his original 'silent social revolution' as a study of the state's educational provision in the 40 years, 1895–1935 and its effect on our society. The book he produced was an important, though often neglected, secondary source available to the social historian of the period. Today, when doubts are cast on the social benefits derived from compulsory school-based education, a painstaking rehearsal of what it took to achieve a school place for every child is worth our attention. The drop-outs of the 1880s were not the physically mature young people of today but gangs of young children 'sleeping together in such places as the Adelphi Arches covered with tarpaulins and old sacks'.

In Mr. Lowndes' period the population of England became healthier, better able to use its leisure, more adaptable and more prosperous very largely because of its steadily increasing access to education. In this book there is no disproportionate attention to the secondary stage. Every aspect of

a growing service is given its share of credit for the general achievement. Between 1902 and 1918 progress in elementary education, in technical and adult education, even in special educational treatment seemed painfully slow. Only in secondary provision did Morant's genius backed by Sadler's expertise seem to be achieving revolutionary change, although it was only a restricted élite group of pupils that were affected. Even the limited extension of secondary education, however, was to prove enormously significant in terms both of social welfare and economic productivity. The elementary schools improved after the 1914 war because of the better educated teaching power within them which was exactly the result at which Morant had aimed. The technical weaknesses of British industry were overcome in the 20's and 30's. It was financial rather than technical fallacies that obstructed the growth of productivity. The British system of technical and commercial education, established after 1918, was based on co-operation between industry and the further education establishments provided for part-time students. It is now fashionable to deride the achievements of such a system but they were real and substantial. Our capacity to challenge and survive the onslaught of German military technology was due to them as much as to the secondary schools. Our competitive motor vehicle, electrical and chemical industries were due no less to further than to university education. Like our post-1902 system of secondary education, the post 1920 system of further education became obsolescent, but both were serviceable instruments in their time.

The health of children and the special treatment afforded to handicapped children constitute the most striking element in the 'silent' revolution. Apart from a place like Bradford where the first school medical inspection on record took place in 1895 (it disclosed that a quarter of the 400 children examined had not had their clothes off for up to nine months), there are no figures available until 1908 when medical inspection was imposed upon local authorities as a duty. Then it was found that on average at least 700 out of 1,000 children were dirty in varying degrees, 100 to 130 showed signs of malnutrition, 120 to 200 of defective eyesight, 700 to 800 of dental decay, 150 to 180 of diseases of the nose and throat, 10 to 20 of ringworm. By 1935, Mr. Lowndes claims, our school medical services were more complete and universal than in any other country.

The second half of this book begins with the second world war and tells the story of the improvised educational arrangements of a dark period. Against a detailed account of mistakes, confusion and set-back, Mr. Lowndes quotes Kenneth Richmond's comment (1949) 'The activity approach (in the junior school) made more headway during those six years than it had previously done in half a century.'

There follows an inside view of the backroom preparations for the Butler Act, and a dramatic account of its passage through Parliament. Characteristically, Mr. Lowndes attributes the profound change of attitude to state education which it demonstrated partly to the personal qualities of the Act's sponsors and partly to the generally optimistic climate of opinion built up on the naval, military and air successes of the first quarter of 1944. The achievements of the Butler Act are clearly summarised and there is a balanced statement of the successes and failures of the new secondary education that followed it. At this point it will seem to many that the author over-values the old grammar school curriculum. It had, as he points out, 'produced civilized, intelligent and responsible men and women . . . an admirable civil and local government service and a professional class . . . with few equals in honourable dealing and breadth of vision'. Nevertheless it had little to offer to large numbers of the young people for whom secondary education was now to be provided under conditions of shortage and environmental disadvantage.

A great national effort was called for to realise in practice even a modicum of the Butler Act ideals. The *perpetuum mobile* principle in education soon demonstrated itself. Improved secondary education demanded vast developments in further and higher education on which the nation was slow to embark. With much still to be done

in this direction the basic weaknesses of the 'new' secondary system increasingly manifested themselves. Together with most countries of Western Europe we began at the end of Mr. Lowndes' period another reconstruction which immediately indicated the need for change not only in the secondary school, but in the curriculum, the age range and organisation both of primary and further education.

D.M.H.

## Popular Education 1700-1870

University of Newcastle upon Tyne Department of Education

Compiled by G. W. Hogg and J. C. Tyson

*Distributed by Harold Hill & Son Ltd., Newcastle upon Tyne, 13s. 6d.*

## Education Act 1870

Department of Education & Science

Compiled by A. H. Howlett

*HMSO, 15s.*

These two archive teaching units provide interesting points of comparison and contrast. *Popular Education 1700–1870* is the fourth to appear from the Department of Education of Newcastle University (the first three were reviewed in *Trends in Education*, No. 17) and covers a lengthy period of educational history in 32 documents. *Education Act 1870* is designed as part of the Centenary Year celebrations and includes 23 documents dating from 1870 to 1901. By modern methods of reproduction it is possible to copy original documents with remarkable verisimilitude and both these sets are, technically, well up to standard. The first includes a few documents in which the original handwriting is hard to read and one or two where the indistinct state of the originals has made reproduction difficult. The second set presents no palaeographical problems, though again one or two items have not reproduced very well. In general, however, teachers will be able to feel that their pupils have documentary material for study which is as near to the original as it is humanly possible to achieve.

As for the items actually chosen, it appears that good representative selections have been made from the abundant sources available. The Newcastle set relates only to the North-East, but developments there were in many (though by no means all) respects typical of what was happening all over the country. There are items which illustrate the setting up of charity schools early in the eighteenth century, others which refer to Wesleyanism and the Sunday school movement later in that century and others again reflecting the great impetus which was given to the provision of elementary education in the early nineteenth century and its elaboration up to the time of the 1870 Act. Particular stress is laid on internal school conditions, such as curricula and buildings, with a wealth of data about contemporary society. Indeed, the themes which could be followed through from these often very detailed documents are legion. *Education Act 1870* has a shorter period to cover—the Act itself and its implementation up to the end of the School Board era. Again the material is well-chosen and varied, including, for example, newspapers, posters and photographs of Victorian children in addition to manuscript items. In short, both units have a great deal to offer and are remarkably good value for money.

The practising teacher is bound to ask how exactly this material (which is being matched by other units produced on various aspects of history up and down the country) is to be used most effectively in the classroom. How much help is he entitled to expect from the compilers? The unit on the *Education Act 1870* includes a teacher's guide and wisely groups the documentary material under eight themes from 'The passing of the Act' to 'The curriculum'. That on *Popular Education 1700–1870* includes two booklets, the first giving an outline of the main developments in educational history during the period and the other detailed notes on each document and suggestions for topic work on three selected themes within the whole. The explanations and suggestions provided will not, however, save the teacher from much preparatory work. All this diverse original material has to be digested and some items, particularly in the Newcastle collection, would need a good deal of explanation even for relatively advanced

students. Is the object of these collections to extend factual knowledge or to develop 'historical' methods of learning? As the writers of a recent article on archives in history teaching observe in *Teaching History* (Vol. 1, No. 3): 'To the teacher who decides to use archive materials, and to the compiler of archive kits, (it is) vital to define which aim he is trying to fulfil *before* he embarks upon the task of selecting and organizing archive materials. Unless he does so, he has no criterion upon which to proceed.' They further point out that 'few history teachers . . . will have worked with archives themselves.'

Here therefore we have two admirable collections of documents relating to the history of education. They certainly provide the raw material for potentially fruitful work with children and students. It is no criticism to remark that whether they will be used with real educational purpose will depend more than ever on the skill of both teachers and taught.

M.V.J.S.

## Roads Before the Railways 1700–1851

by J. M. Thomas

*Evans, 35s.*

The turnpike roads have an important place in British history—indeed in world history. The transportation network to which they contributed is now regarded as one of the essential pre-conditions of the industrial revolution. (And it is a quaint reminder of the persistence of the turnpike idea that the Stockton-Darlington railway line of 1825 was operated on the same basis —anyone with a train could run it on the line against a toll. Fortunately not many people had trains, or the timetabling might have become difficult). It is therefore a welcome addition to the growing library of educational archives that Evans have made *Roads before the Railways* an early title in their series. There is more in it however than the story of the turnpike network, which was virtually complete by 1760, and the story runs on until 1851. The documents in fact are mostly from the latter period and illustrate the hopes and hazards of personal travel rather than the significance of the roads for industry and commerce. For schools (certainly primary schools) this is undoubtedly right, and teachers of senior forms will know best how to lead the interested pupil from highway robbery to broader economic transactions.

Unlike the Jackdaw series the Evans 'History at Source' sets are not folders of loose copies of documents but are in effect large books (12" x 18") in which the documents are reproduced as parts of the printed page, and some are slightly reduced in the process (we are told when, but not by how much). There cannot be much doubt that they lose some appeal in the process: there is not quite the same feeling of authenticity. It is claimed (and no doubt rightly) that the copy is sometimes more readable than the original, and here too perhaps there is some loss of understanding of the materials in which historians have often to work. But the gain of this more durable format is also considerable—and at 35s. the book must be expected to earn its keep over a period and not disappear into the project of the first pupil to lay hands on it. There are some useful introductory notes by J. A. Thomas who as general editor is to be congratulated on this new addition to a series which already includes *Children 1770–1850*, *Law and Order 1700–1860* and *Factory Life 1770–1880*.

N.C.

## The Education Act 1870

by Eric E. Rich

*Longmans, 20s.*

## 1870–1970 Century of Growth in English Education

by H. C. Dent

*Longmans, 20s.*

Varying degrees of permanence will attach to the paraphernalia with which 1970 celebrates the Elementary Education Act of a century before. Some, like the Westminster exhibition now on tour in the regions, will make their mark and be gone. Others, like the folder of archives published by HMSO for the Department, will (if used as intended) be absorbed into various learning activities and rightly lose their separate

identity. Yet others are intended to have a longer life cycle. One hopes that the *Trends* centenary issue might be included in this category; also Bernard Rand's special composition *Agenda*. Longmans, with the two volumes cited above, are also in this category; and it is a fair bet that students in colleges will long find both to be useful standard works.

Among historians of education Professor Dent occupies a respected place; and this latest volume, enlarged out of three Joseph Payne Memorial Lectures given in 1967, will in no way diminish his reputation. It is a sound, scholarly and readable work, the sort of book that can give pleasure at the first reading and still earn a place on the handy reference shelf. Dr Rich looks not at a hundred years of legislation and administration, but at one enactment—the one that is generally accepted as the first of the series. He permits himself a closing chapter on what he calls 'The harvest—1870 to 1970' but his real interest is in how the one Act came to be passed. His subject therefore is public opinion and as such his book belongs to the history of ideas. To this class it makes a valuable contribution and it will commend itself at least as much to students of history as to budding educationists.

History is as bedevilled by its specialisations as most other disciplines—bedevilled *and* enlightened, for without the careful competence of the experts in the history of limited themes how would the generalists have the material they need to call upon? But no human experience evolves wholly in isolation—technological changes, for example, have a profound effect on religious history—and it is enlightening to take, as Dr Rich has done, a single event and relate it to the whole climate of thought in which it was enveloped.

The Act was passed in 1870 because the time had come for it to be passed: both what it did and what it failed to do were determined by what society was ready for. What interests the historian is why English society was ready for just this much in 1870, and no more; and why it took until 1870 to screw itself up to the necessary pitch of courage. It would be a profoundly interesting work for someone to take the long chain of educational prescription and provision linked together by Professor Dent and apply to each of the main pieces the technique which Dr Rich has applied to the first. In the meantime we can be grateful for these two volumes—and not least for the train of thought which they jointly inspire.

N.C.

## The Origins and Growth of Modern Education

Elizabeth Lawrence

*Penguin Books, 10s.*

## A History of Adult Education in Great Britain

Thomas Kelly

*L.U.P., 63s.*

Mrs Lawrence has set out to trace the evolution of educational thinking and philosophy from Plato to Piaget, from 500 BC to the present day. This, for a book of 370 pages, is an ambitious undertaking. But the author adds to her courage a remarkably wide educational background—she has been a teacher, a training-college lecturer, a member of the BBC Schools department and a local authority adviser on infant education. She possesses also an immense background of reading, as is indicated by the remarkably scholarly and comprehensive bibliography appended to the book. This is no text-book rehash. Mrs Lawrence has really gone to her sources, and made good use of them.

The only trouble is that she has gone to too many. There are over 100 educational philosophers referred to, usually with illustrative quotations. The result is that it is very difficult to see the wood for the trees. We could have done with less of Rudolph Agricola, David Williams, Sir Thomas Wyse, David Fordyce, and Hezekiah Woodward, and more of really seminal thinkers like Locke, Rousseau, Froebel, Dewey, Piaget. Above all with something of Matthew Arnold, who is not mentioned (though Thomas gets a chapter to himself). Something, finally, of recent pioneering work like that of Professor Bruner and R. N. Hallam.

But it would be ungrateful not to acknowledge the wealth of treasures which Mrs Lawrence sets before us. One is irresistibly tempted to extract some of the nuggets of bright gold:

> 'It should be noted here that the play of children is not really play, but must be judged as their most serious actions'.
> (Montaigne)

> 'Leave childhood to ripen in your children'. (Rousseau)
> 'Children do not need teaching as much as they need love and understanding'.
> (A. S. Neill)

> 'The most important task of education is to bring home to the student the greatest of all problems—the problem of living—and to give him some guidance in it'.
> (Sir Richard Livingstone)

But one could go on for ever; this is a review, not an anthology. Perhaps we can leave Susan Isaacs to have the last word:—

> 'We come back at every point to the view that it is the child's doing, the child's active social experience and his own thinking and talking that are the chief means of his education'.

We have begun to see the fruits of that wise counsel in some of our better infant schools.

Professor Kelly's monumental *History of Adult Education in Great Britain*, published in 1962, has now appeared in a revised edition, with three additional chapters dealing with the period from 1939 to the present day, and with a series of useful graphs illustrating the expansion of the work of responsible bodies and of evening institutes during this period.

This is not the place to attempt a review of the work as a whole, since it received full notice at the time of its original publication. Suffice it to say that this is by far the fullest and most comprehensive work on this subject that has yet appeared, and one which is unlikely to be superseded for a long time to come.

The new chapters give a very full and well documented account of the development of adult education in all its aspects since 1939. The war-time educational agencies like CEMA and ABCA and their effect in stimulating the growth of adult education centres and community centres in post-war Britain are fully described. The milestones in subsequent history—the 1944 Act, the Ashby report, the foundation of the Open University—are clearly placed in their social context; and there is an illuminating treatment of recent trends in adult education such as the growing preponderance of women, the shift in subject-demand, the emergence of a new well-educated professional clientele.

There are, it is true, one or two curious errors in emphasis or interpretation. It is, for instance, misleading to say that in the sixties 'the task of providing liberal adult education continued to fall almost exclusively on the responsible bodies', when we remember that in 1968 there were just under 1,400,000 students in evening institutes as compared with 247,606 attending R.B. courses. And Professor Kelly seems to have a blind spot on the subject of government participation in the 'four-fold partnership' of which he writes. It is significant that the 1946 FE (Grant) regulations are mentioned, but not the 1959 and 1969 regulations which superseded them, and which represented a change in government policy. Similarly, the role of HMI as adviser and assessor is totally ignored.

But these are minor blemishes. Taking the book as a whole it remains an indispensable guide to the growth of adult education from the Middle Ages to the present day.

A.E.E.



Dd 501572 K76

# TOWARDS THE MIDDLE SCHOOL

EDUCATION PAMPHLET No 57

This pamplet discusses the educational and administrative problems that have to be overcome in introducing middle schools

# LAUNCHING MIDDLE SCHOOLS

EDUCATION SURVEY No 8

An account of preparations made in the West Riding of Yorkshire for the introduction of a three-tier system of education